DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 468 857 PS 030 591

AUTHOR	Cassidy, Jack, Ed.; Garrett, Sherrye D., Ed.
TITLE	Early Childhood Literacy: Programs & Strategies To Develop Cultural, Linguistic, Scientific and Healthcare Literacy for Very Young Children & their Families, 2001 Yearbook.
INSTITUTION	Texas A and M Univ., Corpus Christi. Center for Educational Development, Evaluation and Research.
ISBN	ISBN-0-9718442-0-8
PUB DATE	2002-00-00
NOTE	220p.; For individual chapters, see PS 030 592-605.
AVAILABLE FROM	Center for Educational Development, Evaluation and Research, Early Childhood Development Center, 6300 Ocean Drive, Corpus Christi, TX 78412 ($10). Tel: 361-825-5611; Fax: 361-825-3377.
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Collected Works - General (020)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Bilingual Education; Child Development; Child Development Centers; Childrens Literature; *College School Cooperation; Cultural Literacy; Developmentally Appropriate Practices; Educational Research; Educational Strategies; Family Involvement; Health Education; *Laboratory Schools; Literacy; Multicultural Education; Preschool Children; Preschool Education; Program Descriptions; Reading Instruction; Science Instruction; Scientific Literacy; Teaching Methods; Technological Literacy
IDENTIFIERS	Corpus Christi Independent School District TX; Texas (Corpus Christi); *Texas A and M University Corpus Christi

ABSTRACT

This yearbook recounts the work in 2001 at the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) at Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi. Rather than an "elitist" laboratory school for the children of university faculty, the ECDC is a collaboration between the Corpus Christi Independent School District and the university, with an enrollment representative of Corpus Christi's population. The book's first four chapters give a historical overview of the ECDC and its dual-language programs; each program is then discussed more fully in chapters 5-14. The book's first unit, "The School and the Classroom," contains chapters: (1) "A University Lab School for the 21st Century: The Early Childhood Development Center" (Jack Cassidy and Jana Sanders); (2) "A Dual Language Curriculum for Young Children" (Nicole S. Montague, Christine Marroquin, and Frank Lucido); (3) "University/Public School Partnership Provides a Jump Start for Three-Year-Olds" (JoAnn Canales and Susan Duron); and (4) "What's Appropriate about Developmentally Appropriate Practices? Observing Early Childhood Development Center Classroom Environments" (Richard J. Ricard, Angela Brown, and Jana Sanders). Unit 2, "Family Involvement," contains chapters: (5) "The Literacy Connection" (Sherrye Garrett, Ruth Rechis, Robert Garcia, Linda Rivera, and Linda Landreth); and (6) "Book Choices for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Parents: Strategies for Sharing Books in Bilingual Homes" (Joanne L. Ratliff and Nicole S. Montague). Unit 3, "Linguistic Literacy," contains chapters: (7) "Assessment and Instruction of Phonics for Young Children: A Model for Collaborative Teaching and Learning" (Merry Boggs); and (8) "America Reads + Reading Recovery + Right To Read = Quality Tutoring: A Pilot Program" (Jack Cassidy and Thomas Linton). Unit 4,

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"Cultural Literacy," contains chapters: (9) "Multicultural Literature: Broadening Young Children's Experiences" (Rachel G. Salas, Frank Lucido, and JoAnn Canales); and (10) "Learning through Drama" (Ina Jensen, Ruth Rechis, and J. Don Luna). Unit 5, "Scientific & Technological Literacy," contains chapters: (11) "Nature Study: A Science Curriculum for Three- and Four-Year-Olds" (JoAnn Montes McDonald and Robert McDonald); and (12) "Developing a Curriculum Framework in Technology for Young Children" (Stephen Rodriguez and Morgan Williams). Finally, unit 6, "Healthcare Literacy," contains chapters: (13) "A School Healthcare Program for Low Income Families of Very Young Children" (Esperanza Villanueva Joyce); and (14) "Use of Children's Literature in a Comprehensive School Guidance Program for Young Children" (Shelley A. Jackson and Kaye W. Nelson). (Each chapter contains references.) (EV)

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EARLY CHILDHOOD LITERACY:

Programs & Strategies to Develop Cultural, Linguistic, Scientific and Healthcare Literacy for Very Young Children & Their Families

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2001 Yearbook

published by:

C.E.D.E.R

Center for Educational Development, Evaluation & Research)

College of Education

Texas A&M University –Corpus Christi

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Edited by
Jack Cassidy, Ph.D.
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Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

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EARLY CHILDHOOD LITERACY:

Programs & Strategies to Develop Cultural, Linguistic, Scientific and Healthcare Literacy for Very Young Children & Their Families

2001 YEARBOOK

Published by

CEDER

(Center for Educational Development, Evaluation & Research)

College of Education

Texas A&M University
Corpus Christi

Edited by
Jack Cassidy, Ph.D.
Sherrye D. Garrett, Ed.D.
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ISBN 0-9718442-0-8

Printed at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

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FOREWARD

Josué Cruz, Jr.

In the last decade there has been a heightened sensitivity for the needs of young children and their families. These two groups have become, for all intents and purposes, highly sought-after social and political commodities. Additionally, there have been a plethora of individuals, advocacy groups, government and non-governmental panels, and foundations eager to weigh-in with their voices and recommendations. As well, others have promoted the welfare and education of children as means to win votes and garner sympathy for a particular ideology. And in the midst of all this jockeying for the hearts and minds of children and their families is the work carried out by the faculty and staff of the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi.

While the rest of the nation was busy attempting to figure out what to do with the latest in research and how to translate such findings into practice, the ECDC was moving forward to fill this void. Armed with some of the most recent and significant research on families, brain development, literacy, health, and best practices and complemented with an ideal facility, population and public support, the work of the center began to take shape. In the meantime, the profession and public were presented with such publications and programs as: *Eager to Learn; From Science to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development; Children of 2010; The State of America's Children; Creating the Will; Ready or Not;* Healthy Start; Early Start and others too numerous to list. The themes that emerge from these publications and programs fall in the purview of families, early intervention, literacy, second language acquisition, social development and health and nutrition. Incidentally, these are the same areas of inquiry that the ECDC researchers had identified as critical to advancing quality comprehensive services to children and their families.

Hence, what this **2001 Yearbook** represents is an attempt to place many of those themes into their proper perspective and in the context of early childhood literacy as a base. Heretofore, the

discussion and application of literacy was generally restricted to the traditional school grades and often clouded by the so-called "reading wars" that emerged as a result of philosophical differences. Now that the intensity of those differences has subsided and coupled with the new knowledge of the importance of literacy in the early years, there is clearly a need for early educators and development specialists to come together with a common agenda.

The major contribution of this book rests with the fact that the profession's traditional thinking approach to early childhood education is being challenged. We as early educators are moving from something we do ***to*** children to something we do ***with*** children. Another part of the changing equation is the factoring in of parents and families. For too long, they were considered a part of the physical landscape and not as key players in the teaching and learning enterprise. The research noted in the ***Yearbook*** serves as a reminder that teaching young children and working with their families is a complex undertaking and such work should not be taken lightly.

The researchers and authors of the chapters that follow should be commended for their efforts to add to the national discourse on the teaching and learning of young children. They have crafted their inquiry from a broad base of scholarly literature and have moved forward towards implementation. The results challenge all of us to be ever so vigilant when considering quality services.

In closing, we have all heard the mantra "leave no child behind" so prominently promoted by government officials and professionals in the field. I can say with great assurance that the ECDC faculty and staff have not only bought in to this notion, they are doing something about it.

Josué Cruz, Jr., is Professor of Childhood Education at the University of South Florida and Vice President of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (1999-2000). He serves on the advisory boards of NICK JR. Magazine and Bright Horizons Family Solutions.

INTRODUCTION

Dear Readers,

This publication is a travelogue of an early childhood education adventure not yet complete—an expedition mapped by individuals who dreamed of an educational program that often appeared beyond their reach. They imagined a school where the youngest of learners could grow and develop in an environment designed to meet their young needs—social, intellectual, emotional, cultural and physical. They envisioned children; age three through grade three, from affluent and poor families, receiving instruction equally in Spanish and English. They saw university faculty and classroom teachers working together to explore the learning of young children. They imagined that those investigations would be shared with other teachers and other schools so that their best discoveries could be replicated.

Their dreams became more probable with the construction of the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC), which opened in 1996. This facility, located on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) campus provided an environment in which their ideas could flourish and grow. From the beginning, concern was voiced that it not be an elitist laboratory school for the children of university faculty. Instead, the ECDC became a unique collaboration between an independent school district and a university—a school representative of Corpus Christi's population with children, some prosperous some needy, from homes where only Spanish is spoken and from homes with English speaking families.

Since its inception the ECDC has been a collaborative effort of the Corpus Christi Independent School District and Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. The District employs the classroom teachers and the children attending are selected by lottery from the District. The reasoning for this is sound. As best teaching practices are discovered and defined, they are tried in the ECDC with a classroom population representative of the District. This way, replication may be facilitated in neighborhood schools regardless of the economic level or the educational levels of citizens.

Along the way, this journey has expanded and diversified as new participants have come aboard and different routes have been identified. Some of the initial concepts have disappeared; others have been modified as the ECDC has evolved. New ideas have been introduced and incorporated into the curriculum; new concepts have improved the programs and the services provided for the ECDC children, parents and staff. Constant change continues to be a necessary component of the ECDC. It is appropriately named a *development* center.

Professional development is a vital element. Every Wednesday the children participate in extra-curricular activities, such as music, drama and art, while their teachers work with individuals who provide training and share knowledge. The teachers, with the guidance of the principal and a research liaison, explore teaching scholarship. Often this growth is tied to research projects that will be conducted in their classrooms by the university faculty. This year, vocabulary was the focus of much continued development.

Before research could flourish in the ECDC, a trust had to be established so that program participants and classroom teachers felt safe to take the risks of experimentation. That assurance has been built between the university faculty, classroom teachers, principal and staff. As expected the ECDC children score well on the assessment measures required by the State of Texas and for the past two years, the school has been recognized as *Exemplary*.

This year all College of Education projects, surveys, assessments and grants were grouped under one organization—the Center for Educational Development, Evaluation & Research (CEDER). A CEDER board, with representation from every department, including the ECDC school, meets regularly to appraise proposals for study in the ECDC. The board recommends funding, adjusts timelines, and regulates the number of studies occurring in the classrooms at any time. A liaison was designated to work specifically with the classroom teachers and university faculty. This arrangement has promoted more joint research between the two groups.

Our aspiration is to disseminate our findings openly and often. That goal has led us to publish this CEDER yearbook. This initial

volume is special for those of us in the Corpus Christi Independent School District and at TAMUCC who are involved in the ECDC because it tells the story of our work in the early childhood realm. This book contains the story of our work this year in early childhood. The first four chapters give a historical overview of the Early Childhood Development Center and its programs. Each program is discussed more fully in chapters five through fourteen. This and future yearbooks will provide researchers and practitioners a forum to present findings which focus on the development and education of young children.

At the close of this 2001-2002 school year, a landmark for the ECDC will occur. We will recognize our first group of third-graders who began their formal education at the ECDC as three-year-olds. This special class will be tracked throughout their education to determine the benefits of their special early education.

We would be remiss if we did not recognize the early dreamers and workers who made this milestone possible. Dr. Robert Cox, Dr. Jane Wilhour and Dr. Sandra Lanier-Lerma, we thank you for your willingness to conceptualize new ways of educating children. TAMUCC President Robert Furgason and CCISD past Superintendent Abelardo Saavedra, your support and confidence helped us evolve and grow. The Blanche Davis Moore Foundation, The Behmann Brothers Foundation, The Welhausen Management Trust, CITGO Corpus Christi Refinery and The Coastal Bend Community Foundation, your financial backing and belief in our mission allowed it to happen. The Honorable Carlos F. Truan, your confidence led others to believe in us as well. Senator Kay Bailey Hutchison and Congressman Solomon Ortiz, your advocacy helped us secure federal support in Washington, D.C. and your continuing dedication to our youngest learners has allowed us to serve them well. To each of you and to all the others who mapped this journey and have pursued it with us, we thank you.

Dean Dee Hopkins
Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi
January 2002

Unit I

THE SCHOOL AND THE CLASSROOM

Chapter 1

A University Lab School for the 21st Century: The Early Childhood Development Center

Jack Cassidy
Jana Sanders

The Evolution of Laboratory Schools

Laboratory schools situated on university and college campuses were long a staple of institutions that provided training for preservice teachers. The concept was simple. Bring PreK-12 students on campus, provide them with an education, and at the same time provide preservice teachers an opportunity to practice some of the methods they were learning in their pedagogy classes. These campus lab schools would also enable faculty and graduate students to experiment with new educational ideas and methods and to conduct the research needed to validate those ideas or methods. Furthermore, although never acknowledged in their mission statements, these campus lab schools often provided university faculty with a convenient place to educate their own children. Children from the local community were also invited to attend, but usually their parents would have to provide transportation.

This chapter will delineate the rise and fall of the university laboratory school in the United States and then describe a new laboratory school, the Early Childhood Development Center on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. This facility addresses some of the problems of the older campus laboratory schools, and at the same time, grapples with some of the major concerns of educators and legislators in the 21st century.

The Rise of Lab Schools & Child Development Centers

Laboratory schools have been part of the university milieu in Europe and America for at least 200 years; some documents even date their origins to the 1600s. As early as the 1820s, reports of normal schools in the United States indicated that they were providing teaching opportunities for their preservice teachers in controlled teaching environments. Europe and America were not the only continents to have laboratory schools. In Japan, laboratory schools were and are called "attached schools." (Hayo, 1993).

From 1850 to 1950, laboratory schools thrived. An 1874 report from the U.S. Commissioner of Education indicated that 47 of the nation's 67 state normal schools provided laboratory or training schools in connection with their teacher education programs (Hendrick, 1980). By 1920, virtually every major teacher training institution in the country had a campus laboratory school. Often, the

lab schools were small because institutions had limited space and were reluctant to invest a great deal of money in faculties and facilities for these campus schools. The University of Chicago School was one of the premier sites. John Dewey started the school and he was its director from 1896 until 1904. He articulated the purposes of the laboratory school (Hendrick, 1980, p. 58):

> *It bears the same relation to the work of pedagogy that a laboratory bears to biology, physics, or dentistry. Like any such laboratory it has two main purposes (1) to exhibit, test, verify and criticize theoretical statements and principles, and (2) to add to sum of facts and principles in its special line.*

Dewey believed that research was the primary mission of laboratory schools, and he did not believe that they should serve as training vehicles for prospective teachers (Provenzo, 1979). Although Dewey had a deep concern for economically deprived populations, the University of Chicago lab school had to charge tuition in order to survive. For the most part, students attending the school came from very affluent families.

Starting in the 1920s, many universities also began to develop child development laboratory programs or centers (Osborn, 1991). These were essentially laboratory schools for very young children. Like the earlier laboratory schools, these centers also had a three-fold mission: to serve as a practicum site for training preservice and inservice teachers in early childhood education and child development, to serve as a site for research on various aspects of child development, and to provide model programs in early childhood education for the national and local educational communities (McBride, 1996). Some also served as daycare centers for university students and faculty. Significant research emerged from these child development centers, including: norms for child development (Gesell at Yale), intelligence tests (Kuhlman at Minnesota), and studies of child play (Paten at Minnesota). Ironically, teacher educators conducted few of these significant studies; nor did they have direct application to the early childhood classroom.

The Fall of Lab Schools & Child Development Centers

After World War II, the number of lab schools in the United States declined precipitously, and few new lab schools were opened. A 1964 survey counted 212 lab schools, which declined to 166 by 1973. By the start of the 21st century, John R. Johnson, Executive Director of the National Association of Laboratory Schools, estimated that there were about only 100 lab schools in the United States (personal communication, July 28, 2001).

Some of the same factors that initially contributed to the success of the lab school concept also contributed to its decline. However, the reasons for the decline were many (Goodlad, 1980; Hendrick, 1980; Dishner & Boothby, 1986). Critics maintained that some of the methods, materials, and philosophies that were so successful in the lab schools could not thrive outside the rarefied atmosphere of a campus school. Often, the students were the progeny of university faculty, and they lived in an atmosphere that actively promoted learning and school. Many of the non-faculty children came from affluent homes in which families could fill their shelves with books and could provide transportation to and from school. In other words, they were serving an elitist population – not typical of the population at large (MacNaughton & Johns, 1993; Hayo, 1993). Thus, even faculty in schools of education began to complain that lab schools were not providing preservice teachers with authentic field experiences.

John Goodlad (1980), one of the premier educators in the United States, was director of a laboratory school for 18 years. While at the University of California, Los Angeles, the site of one of the country's premier lab schools, he clearly identified four other problems of lab schools. First was the problem of functions. He identified five major functions of lab schools: education of the children enrolled, development of new and innovative practices, research and inquiry, preservice education, and inservice education. He concluded that two of those functions, inservice and preservice education, would best be left to the local schools surrounding universities. These surrounding schools, or professional development schools, as they came to be called, would form new partnerships with the university (Goodlad, 1990). Most of the field-based teacher preparation, particularly the junior year experience and student teaching, would take place in these schools. The concept of professional development schools became one of the cornerstones of the reforms of teacher education proposed in the

late eighties and early nineties (Goodlad, 1990; Holmes Group, 1990). Some argued, however, that the laboratory school could also become a professional development school (Smith, 1991).

The second major problem identified by Goodlad (1980) was one of differing values. Many of the stakeholders in lab schools have very differing values. The lab schoolteachers, or clinical faculty, want to demonstrate teaching expertise, preferably with methods and materials with which they are comfortable. The inservice teachers visiting the school want a technique or lesson they can use tomorrow; the preservice teacher wants a job; university professors want a hassle-free environment where they can do research; and the director of the school wants all of those things simultaneously. Because Goodlad would relegate the preservice and inservice education responsibilities to surrounding schools, he goes on to note that the conflict between the university professors and the lab schoolteachers can be a major concern. He states that each group fails to recognize the strengths of the other. The university professor has knowledge of research and specialized content whereas the lab schoolteacher has expertise in working with groups of children.

The third and fourth problems identified by Goodlad (1980) were the problem of resources and the problem of external and internal support. The problem of adequate resources has plagued lab schools since their inception. Most campus lab schools are small, having no more than one or two classrooms per grade level. However, when all schools were required to offer all of the specialized services of the larger schools (e.g. special education, speech therapists, music, physical education, teachers of the gifted, nutrition, etc.), lab schools were particularly hard hit (McConnaha, 1996). Many universities began to question their financial commitment to lab schools particularly with the growth of professional development schools.

In summary, Goodlad (1980) stated that unless the professional faculty are actively involved in doing research with the children and clinical faculty in the lab schools, and unless the lab schools maintain a "questioning ambience," the schools are doomed to failure. The schools themselves, the professional faculty, and the clinical faculty must always be receptive to change, experimentation, and research.

Another problem of lab schools only briefly alluded to by Goodlad (1980) was their failure to disseminate information about the research and program development being conducted on site. In an interview, John Haefner (Hepburn, 1995), a prominent social studies

educator and former President of the National Council of Social Studies, after bemoaning the closing of the University of Iowa lab school which was known for its innovative curriculum and teaching methods, supported the proposition that campus laboratory schools had failed in their dissemination mission:

> *"Why was it closed? We simply did not publish enough about the high school. We defeated ourselves by not making greater efforts to get the results out to other educators" (p.454).*

The Early Childhood Development Center

The $7.8 million Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) is one of the few university lab schools to open in the nineties. Like the lab schools and child development centers of old, this school has four interrelated missions: to do research, to train teachers, to provide model programs, and to educate the children attending the school. The facility was funded by the 73rd Texas Legislature in the 1994-95 Biennial Budget for TAMUCC. The on-campus elementary school opened in August 1996 and is still in operation. Today, it serves children age three through grade three. The school opened in 1996 with only four classrooms (age three through grade one). In 1997, the second-grade classroom was added, and in 1998, the third-grade classroom was added. The Center was developed through a collaborative effort between Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD). Like earlier lab schools and child development centers, the ECDC emphasizes a developmentally appropriate multi-cultural curriculum, instructional excellence, and team teaching.

However, several major focal points of the ECDC, different from those historically accepted, are emphasized as well. They include:

- A dual language curriculum.
- Fulltime publicly supported schooling for three- and four-year-olds.
- A school student population from low-income families, many of who have English as their second language.
- State-of-the-art technology.
- A heavy emphasis on parent involvement and education.

Collaborative research between lab schoolteachers and College of Education faculty, often the overlooked mission in lab schools of the past, is another major emphasis of the ECDC.

The Facility

The two-story facility contains six classrooms for the three-year-olds through third graders as well as offices for faculty and classrooms for college students. Each of the six classrooms for children has a collapsible wall, which can be opened for large multi-age groupings or closed for single class instruction and activities. In addition, each classroom has approximately eleven computers. On the second floor, above each classroom, there is an observation deck with one-way glass and auditory capability. This provides university students with opportunities to observe unobtrusively the young children below in their classroom setting. The ECDC also houses the Center for Educational Development, Evaluation and Research (CEDER), the research and development center for the College of Education. In general, the professional faculty members housed at the ECDC are committed to involving their students and themselves with research in the center.

School Population

The student population in the Early Childhood Development Center is selected from the Corpus Christi Independent School District, and selection criteria are based upon demographics of that district. Guidelines for the composition of the ECDC school population are in accordance with recommendations of the Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development, an interagency group dedicated to improving the condition of young children at risk (Evans & Meyers, 1994). The school population includes approximately 132 children: 63% of the children qualify for free or reduced lunch, 50% of the children come from Spanish-dominant families, and 50% from English-dominant homes. Thus, there are four groups from which stratified selections are made. Fifty percent (11) of the children come from Spanish-dominant homes; of those, sixty-three percent come from low-income homes (approximately 7), and thirty-seven percent come from non-low income families (approximately 4). The same percentages apply to the

children from English-dominant homes. The local school district conducts a lottery during the month of April from which the 22 three-year-old children for the three-year-old classroom are selected. It is hoped that these three-year-olds will continue at the ECDC through third grade. However, if students drop out or transfer, they are replaced with other children from the original pool. (See Chapter 2 for a detailed discussion of selection procedures.) Thus the school population of the ECDC is, for the most part, representative of the population of South Texas. Unlike many of the lab school populations of the past, the children are not, for the most part, the progeny of affluent well-educated parents.

Faculty

The clinical faculty for the six classrooms in the ECDC are master teachers, all employed by the school district. A part-time itinerant special education teacher also serves the children and is employed by the school district. Because the intent was to make the ECDC concept reproducible in other schools, not all the faculty are bilingual. For the first five years of its operation, two of the clinical faculty were not bilingual. Because fifty percent of the instruction for all children was to be in Spanish, this necessitated team teaching. Turnover of the clinical faculty, although not encouraged, is not discouraged. At the start of 2001, three of the original clinical faculty remain, but two of those have switched grade levels.

In choosing the clinical faculty for the ECDC, particular concern was directed toward the selection of the teachers of the three- and four-year-olds. These teachers were and are an integral part of the school and, as such, were to have impeccable academic credentials. The original teacher of the three-year-olds had her doctorate in early childhood education and, at the time, was one of the few Texas teachers certified by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. The present teacher of three-year-olds has a master's degree in early childhood education with many graduate hours in the teaching of reading. The teacher for the four-year-old classroom has a doctorate in bilingual education and has published several articles in that field.

In 2001, a new position was added to the ECDC – a part-time research liaison. His position is to work with the clinical faculty and

the professional faculty to ensure that the research agreed upon is carried out in the most efficient manner.

ECDC Principal/Director

The roles of the principal and the director of the ECDC have been evolving constantly. In the year prior to the opening of the laboratory school (1995-96), a fulltime director was hired to oversee the planning. He continued in that role during the first year of the ECDC's operation, and his entire salary was paid by the University. In 1997, the role of the director was changed to a half-time position and remained that way for the next three years; however, during the same period, the position was elevated to the rank of assistant dean. Starting in 1996, (the first year in which children attended) and for the first three years of it's the school's operation, a principal, who was a doctoral student in the University's educational leadership program, was added to the roster of ECDC staff. The principal/doctoral student's stipend was again paid by the university. In 1999, the school district assumed responsibility for the salary of the principal although the university supplemented that salary for additional responsibilities related to the university. In the fall of 2001, the principal's and director's positions were combined. Again the principal's salary is paid by the school district while the university continues to provide an additional supplement for university-related responsibilities. The principal/director of the laboratory school functions as a department chair within the College of Education together with the six other departments: counseling, curriculum & instruction, educational administration & research, kinesiology, special services, and teacher education. The faculty members in the ECDC Department consist of the teachers in the laboratory school – the clinical faculty.

Center Curriculum

The original curriculum for the ECDC was written during the fall of 1995 by a cadre of CCISD teachers and the early childhood education faculty from TAMUCC. However, changes in curriculum for the Corpus Christi Independent School District have also influenced the curriculum at the ECDC. That curriculum has as its focus dual language instruction, and that instruction begins with the three-year-olds. The hope is that the children from the Spanish-dominant homes will learn English, and the children from the English-dominant homes will learn Spanish. About 50% of the instructional time is devoted to each language. (See Chapter 2.) Although dual language facility is particularly important in South Texas, a recent headline in USA Today proclaimed "Si usted no habla español puede quedarse rezagado" (If you don't speak Spanish, you might be left behind") (Sharp, 2001). The article went on to state that everyone from feedlot managers in Nebraska to stockbrokers in New York are realizing the importance of speaking Spanish.

In addition to the focus on dual language instruction, the curriculum at the ECDC includes the use of age appropriate multi-age/cross grade groupings, and team teaching. Each room has approximately eleven computers, so children are introduced to technology at a very young age. A technology curriculum for very young children has been developed by faculty and graduate students in educational technology. (See Chapter 12.)

Health Center

The nursing program on the campus of TAMUCC has a health care facility in the ECDC building to train school nursing students. Students in the nursing program are required to do a clinical rotation through the facility to work with the children. Thus, the children enrolled at the ECDC receive quality preventive health care within the school environment, and the nursing students receive valuable practicum experiences through their interaction with young children. The presence of the Health Center also guarantees that another college within the university also has a vested interest in the laboratory school. (See Chapter 13.)

Counseling Center

Also located in the ECDC building are counseling faculty and graduate students. The graduate students gain experience working with the ECDC children and their families. Faculty in the Department of Counseling have developed an active research agenda, much of it based on their work with the ECDC children and teachers. The school, in turn, receives free counseling for its students and families. (See chapter 14.)

Training Mission

Because the ECDC is on the campus, various groups of undergraduate and graduate students are able to observe and interact with young children. The early childhood majors probably make the most use of the ECDC for observation and practicum experiences because the early childhood classes are taught on site and all early childhood faculty are housed there. Early childhood students have a chance to observe and practice various developmentally appropriate strategies and techniques as well as to examine age appropriate materials. Graduate students in the school; counseling program have opportunities to interact not only with the young children but also with their families. In addition, both graduate and undergraduate students in various curriculum areas and in school nursing have an opportunity to interact with children and teachers in the center.

Results

At the close of its fifth year of operation and with the arrival of a new dean of the College of Education, the clinical and professional faculty had an opportunity to reexamine the results of this five year multi-million dollar experiment. Are the children in the ECDC learning? Would some of the problems faced by past laboratory schools be solved? Could the work done at the ECDC make a contribution to the educational knowledge base? Could this preschool dual language model be replicated in a neighborhood public school?

Quantitative Results

One of the great concerns of everyone associated with the development of the ECDC was the emphasis on high stakes testing in Texas. All public schools in Texas are required to administer the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) on an annual basis. The TAAS consists of criterion-referenced tests in reading, mathematics, and writing. The TAAS reading and mathematics tests are administered to all eligible public school students in grades three through eight and ten. The writing test is administered only at grades four, eight, and ten (Texas Education Agency, 2001).

The TAAS test is designed to measure a list of standards called the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS). The TEKS were developed by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) to provide public school districts with guidelines for a state-required foundation curriculum. Schools receive a rating of "exemplary," "recognized," "acceptable," or "low performing" on the basis of TAAS results and attendance rates. In order for a school to receive an exemplary rating, at least 90% of the students must receive a passing score on the TAAS. In order to pass the test, students must achieve a standard score of 70, which is roughly equivalent to answering correctly 70% of the items (TEA, 2001b).

Thus, the ECDC, which is a public school in the Corpus Christi Independent School District, was required to give this test in 1999, at the end of its third year of operation, and the year the first group of students completed third grade. Unlike most other lab school populations, most of these children did not come from homes where stellar results were the norm. Furthermore, half of the instruction for these children was in Spanish, and the TAAS was in English. Would the ECDC children be able to pass the dreaded test? Professional and clinical faculty hoped the school would be exempt because of its experimental nature. Unfortunately, no such exemptions were available.

When the 1999 results came in, all students had passed the reading portion of the TAAS and most had passed the mathematics section (TEA, 1999). The school was rated "recognized." A banner was hoisted in the school lobby and everyone breathed a sigh of relief. In 2000, the TAAS results came in, and the ECDC was rated "exemplary" (TEA, 2000). Jubilation! 2001 – "exemplary" again! More jubilation (TEA, 2001a)!!!

Replication

One measure of the validity of any program developed in a lab school setting is successful replication in a regular public school. In January 2001, the Zavala Special Emphasis School in the Corpus Christi Independent School District began a fulltime publicly supported preschool for three- and four-year-olds modeled after the ECDC and supported by a congressional grant. Like the ECDC, dual language acquisition is a major point of the curriculum. Also, like the ECDC, not all the teachers are bilingual; one is bilingual, and one speaks only English. As in the ECDC, this situation necessitates team teaching. Both of the new Zavala teachers are recent graduates of Texas A&M University–Corpus Christi's elementary and bilingual education programs. For the most part, the student population of the Zavala Special Emphasis School comes from one of the lowest socio-economic areas of Corpus Christi. (See Chapter 3.)

Overcoming Problems

In 1980, Goodlad succinctly identified numerous problems of lab schools. The first was the many different functions expected of lab schools: education of children, preservice education, inservice education research, and program development. The ECDC has all of those functions, but research and program development have become priorities, along with the education of the children. The professional development schools in the surrounding area have become the major venues for student teaching and other field-based experiences; these experiences have become of secondary importance at the ECDC.

The fact that the clinical faculty and the principal are employed by the local school district alleviates another of the major problems of older lab schools--the problem of resources. No longer is the lab school a drain on the resources of the university or the college of education. Also, the Early Childhood Development Center is addressing two educational problems that have been identified as priorities for the 21st century. Specifically, those problems are Spanish language acquisition (Sharp, 2001) and preschool literacy and learning (Cassidy & Cassidy, 2000/2001; McQuillan, 2001). In fact, because of this unique focus, the ECDC has been able to garnish over a million dollars in external grants. Also, because other colleges and faculty

within the University are involved in the ECDC, there is a broad-based support for this facility.

Another problem of past university laboratory schools has been the failure to disseminate the findings of their research and program development. Although some studies based at the Early Childhood Education Center have been published (Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 1999), the publication and distribution of the CEDER Yearbook, Early Childhood Literacy: Programs & Strategies to Develop Cultural, Linguistic, Scientific and Healthcare Literacy for Very Young Children & Their Families (Cassidy & Garrett, 2001) should provide a unified compendium of research and innovative programming for individuals interested in laboratory schools, dual language acquisition and preschool instruction.

Some Observational Comments

Over thirty years ago William Van Til (1969), a distinguished educator, laboratory advocate and writer, delivered a speech about laboratory schools at the annual conference for the American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE). The speech was later published and widely quoted. Somewhat tongue in cheek, he painted a picture of what a campus laboratory school should be:

> *Within a shining new building on the campus at an institution of higher learning, children and youth who were representative of the American population would experience the finest possible education. Their learning experiences would be derived from the application of the tested best already established, and from experimentation with the newest and most venturesome approaches to education.*
>
> *The laboratory school facility would be made up of master teachers demonstrating their skills in the art and science of teaching, carrying forward research and experimentation with children and youth, and adroitly inducting observers, participants, and student teachers into the best of all possible educational theory and practice. Their partners in the school would be the college and university professors. The professors would artfully interweave their classroom instruction with extensive*

observation, participation, and student teaching in the demonstration school by teachers-to-be. The professors also would share in the development of significant research with the experimental school faculty.

To this center of educational enlightenment would journey educators from far and near to observe the best in education. They would then return to their schools to put new ideas into practice, thus raising the level of American education. The laboratory school would be the pride of the college and university administration, the joy of parents fortunate enough to have young people enrolled therein, and the darling of state legislators, boards of trustees, and philanthropists.

To a large extent, the Early Childhood Development Center at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi fulfills Van Til's dream of the last century. True, there are still university professors who grumble about the attention devoted to the campus school; the lab school teachers complain that more is expected of them than their counterparts in public schools; the administration occasionally sees the ECDC as just another of the myriad problems which must be addressed; and there are occasional curriculum conflicts between the School District and the University. But.... the facility is "a shining new building on the campus of an institution of higher learning" and the student body is "representative of the American population" of South Texas. The dual language curriculum and the fulltime publicly supported program for three- and four-year-olds represent "experimentation with the newest and most venturesome approaches to education." VanTil's statement that "the laboratory school would be the pride of the college and university administration" is brought to life each semester by the President of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi when he proudly cites the ECDC in his opening remarks to faculty. To some extent, the laboratory school has also become "the darling of state legislators, boards of trustees and philanthropists" because they realize that the school is willing to address some of the problems facing public education in the 21st century (1969)

The Future

The problems encountered by the older university lab schools as they entered the last half of the twentieth century have, to some extent, been addressed and overcome by the Early Childhood Development Center on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi campus. Undoubtedly, these problems will continue to exist and new ones will arise. It is the hope of all who are involved in the ECDC that this unique facility will continue to develop and change with the needs and demands of a changing society.

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Chapter 2

A Dual Language Curriculum for Young Children

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Bilingual and Dual Language Programs

The subject of bilingualism and the advantages and disadvantages of having students taught in two languages continue to be subjects of debate across the country. Several models of bilingual education have been promoted over the years; however, most recently, dual language instruction has been found to be an effective model that promotes bilingualism and biliteracy in young students. In dual language classrooms, Spanish first language (L1) and English only students follow the same curriculum, with instruction via the second language at least 50% of the time from kindergarten through sixth grade. The goal of the program is to develop strong bilingual and biliteracy skills in both groups of students. Each group acts as a linguistic model for the other (Cummins, 2000).

These programs provide an environment that promotes positive attitudes toward both languages and cultures and is supportive of full bilingual proficiency for both native and non-native speakers of English. Typical goals for dual language programs include linguistic, academic, and affective dimensions:

- Students will develop high levels of proficiency in their first language and in a second language.
- Students will perform at or above grade level in academic areas in both languages.
- Students will demonstrate positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors and high levels of self-esteem.

It is important to understand that this educational approach does not emphasize language development over academic and social development; the goal is development in all areas (Christian & Mahrer, 1992).

In dual language programs, students from both languages are grouped together so that they will have many opportunities to interact with one another. As documented by Baker & Prys-Jones (1998) and Cummins & Corson (1997), students educated for part of the day in a minority language do not suffer adverse consequences in the development of academic skills in the majority language.

There is a great deal of variety in the implementation of dual language bilingual education. Even the term used to refer to the programs of this type varies widely:

Two-way bilingual, developmental bilingual, bilingual immersion, double immersion, interlocking, and dual language are some of the labels found (Christian & Mahrer, 1992).

There are two major models of dual-language programs. There are 90/10 and 50/50 programs that have been developed representing the time devoted to the minority and the majority language in the program. The 90/10 model aims to promote the language of lesser "prestige" as much as possible because it is the language that the child will encounter the lesser amount of time. The 50/50 model is based on the belief that both languages need to be acquired from the beginning, and that the best way to do this is to split the instructional time between the two. The available research suggests that both models can work well when they are implemented appropriately.

Thomas and Collier (1997b) found the following factors that have contributed to the success of dual language programs:

- Students participate for at least six years.
- The ratio of speakers of each language is balanced.
- The minority language is emphasized in the early grades.
- Instruction is excellent and emphasizes core academics.
- Parents have a strong, positive relationship with the school.

The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) was established as a dual language school in September 1996. The center is a research-based lab school that houses a pre-kindergarten program for three-year-olds through third grade. The dual language curriculum has been developed using variations of the 50/50 dual language model. The two languages used at the center are English and Spanish. (See Chapter 1)

In the pre-kindergarten for three-year-olds, the alternate day language delivery system is in place. One day the instruction is in Spanish and the next day the lessons are in English. In the four-year-old and the five-year-old kindergarten program, a half-day 50/50 delivery system is used. At the third grade level, the alternate day delivery system is used, but only in certain content areas.

A well-planned and carefully implemented two-way dual language program provides the scaffolding that will result in very literate children in two languages. However, reading experiences can result in poor literacy development if a program does not address the

complex systems involved in literacy development for each language and provide the scaffolding between these multifaceted processes (Izquierdo, 2000).

Critical Components of Dual Language Programs

Though the needs of any successful program reflect the community and school specifically, there are several key components that are critical to success in dual language programs (Montague, 1997). These include: (a) defining the model to be used, (b) a gradual phase-in of the program, (c) development of instruction that reflects the population in the classroom, (d) quality materials in each language of instruction, (e) teachers committed to attaining bilingual education training, (f) dedicated administrators with a clear understanding of research as well as community needs, and (g) defining the role of elicited response.

Defining the Model

Different school-wide dual language models have been supported by research in the United States. The 90/10 model has been shown to be most successful for minority language learners (Thomas & Collier, 1997a). This model provides 90% of instruction in the minority language and 10% in English for the pre-school year. The program graduates to an 80/20 model in first grade, then a 70/30 in second grade, etc.

Teachers' lesson plans can be used as a basis for evaluating a curriculum model. They may choose to implement delivery of dual language differently in their classrooms. Some teachers provide instruction in one language according to the day of the week; some split the time of the instructional day according to hours. Several teachers have reported that a tangible reminder defines language division best for both teacher and students. These teachers use a recess bell, turn on a lamp, or put on a hat to signal a language change. In any case, bilingual educators agree that keeping the language model pure is essential for teachers in dual language programs. Some acceptable exceptions to this rule would be cultural storytelling or other activities where a less formal model is required by the curriculum. (For one such exploration, see Mejia, 1998.)

Some bilingual teachers pair with English speaking teachers to create a dual language program for both groups of children. These opportunities provide the benefit of freeing bilingual teachers from the tendency to code-switch between languages in the interest of keeping teacher language modeling pure. This model also allows the inclusion of the talents of those monolingual English-speaking teachers who are dedicated to bilingualism for children. Code switching seems to come so naturally for many bilingual speakers that it presents an acknowledged struggle among many bilingual teachers.

Gradual Phase-In of the Program

Dual language instruction can vary from almost full immersion for English speakers (as with the 90/10 model), to balanced dual language instruction for a group that includes children at different points along the bilingual continuum (as with 50/50 instruction). Models for such programs develop as schools implement programs on a dynamic basis. Many educators warn that these programs should be phased in slowly. Often, as parents talk with educators at the school and university levels about the possibility of establishing dual language programs, excitement reaches levels that inspire overzealous beginnings.

In some cases, dual language instruction has been adopted too quickly in schools. Instead of being phased in grade by grade (Lindholm & Molina, 1996), it is initiated at several levels or in multiple classrooms simultaneously. This places undue pressure on the English-speaking children, who are expected to adapt quickly to language learning during a school year and perform well, while at the same time they are evaluated by formal, standardized testing dictated by the district or state (Morse, 1999).

Phasing in two-way programs, perhaps as a school within a school, at one grade per year lays the groundwork for success. The program should be extended as the initial group of children is promoted to each subsequent grade level. If children begin a dual language program in kindergarten, they have more chance at success than those who begin at an intermediate grade where instruction is more highly complex and textbook reading becomes a major way to convey information. For those concerned about the English speaker hearing 90% of kindergarten instruction in a minority language (as with the 90/10 model), one must remember the importance of

providing the most academic support for the least supported societal language (Grosjean, 1982; Krashen, 1996; Cummins, 1981). English speakers do not face the threat of losing their language or culture when they participate in a dual language program. Both groups of speakers hear television, radio, employees at businesses, and many more models of English on a daily basis. English speakers will not lose their native language or culture from dual language instruction, regardless of the model implemented.

Instruction Reflecting Population

Instead of having a balanced population of minority and majority language speakers, some dual language teachers find they are addressing a majority language group with perhaps only 1% to 10% of minority speakers who may already have developed minimal English skills. This places great linguistic responsibility on the teacher, deprives the student of peers who serve as language models, and ultimately affects the quality of the program (Montague, 1998). The importance of access to language peers has been examined thoroughly (Grosjean, 1982). International research throughout the history of bilingual education indicates that children are efficient language learners and their language abilities develop best in environments in which the language is necessary for communication and basic functioning (Krashen, 1996). The importance of a balanced population cannot be overstressed unless one is prepared to engage in Spanish as a second language instruction with a strict immersion model. In such a case, any Spanish speakers in the class will inevitably become bored and disengage quickly.

Materials

Some dual language programs begin before materials in each language have been purchased or have arrived, forcing the teachers to construct their own materials for the minority language. This can tax the success of the program quickly and send clear messages to children regarding the importance of each language. The value of materials in each of the languages represented in oral instruction should be clear if bilingualism for children is to include biliterate capabilities. As a practitioner researcher, Montague documented this need during a 1998 study. It is a topic that arises with much emotion

from teachers who have responded to surveys and interview questions in the field of dual language instruction.

Teacher Training

Possibly the most important component of any program in bilingual education is teacher training. This issue is raised by teachers who have not been trained as bilingual teachers and often do not have access to teaching techniques, such as clear association with context or extensive use of para-linguistic cues, etc. The new relationship between English speaking and bilingual educators can be professionally stimulating; however, the success of the entire program can weigh heavily on the bilingual faculty. This makes it even more essential for the success of the program that the teaching staff have high quality training and materials rather than being expected to rely solely upon their bilingualism and creativity.

One example of the importance of teacher training is the mistaken belief by the untrained teacher that bilingual education is simply education in two languages. This can lead to the same instruction provided in each language, simply through translating lessons. However, concurrent translation provides minimal benefit for second language learners and can overtax the classroom teacher. A bilingual teacher who has not been trained in bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL) is at a decided disadvantage. Maintaining a high standard for any program might require a certain commitment from dual language teachers to attain bilingual and/or ESL certification.

Administrative Support

The role of school administrators is paramount, especially in schools where parents may be uninformed regarding the potential of dual language programs. Administrators can explain the nature of the program and the benefits for their children. When dual language teachers need support for creative solutions to pressing challenges or for additional access to resources and colleagues, the school administrator can be invaluable. As the head of the school, the administrator serves as a model for children, teachers, and parents. One group of teachers in a successful dual language school reported that their principal set aside the first few weeks of the school year in

order to meet with parents new to the dual language concept. Many parents worry about placing children in a pre-school setting where instruction will be in their weakest language. Majority language parents need the support of a dedicated administrator just as minority language parents have needed such support through the years.

The Role of Elicited Response

For educators trained in bilingual education for the language minority learner approaching acquisition of the majority language, elicited response has been approached very carefully (Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 1999). For language minority learners, there is a constant threat posed by the social stigma of mispronouncing a word in the presence of peers fluent in the major language. However, with an English speaker learning Spanish, the socio-political dynamics are different. Teachers in dual language programs find that if they refrain from eliciting response too long, English speakers will not attempt to use their second language. The pressure for acquisition and production is not as strong because English can be used to negotiate in most other areas of life outside the classroom. One dual language teacher, at the intermediate level, reported that she pretended she could not understand English responses from children. Though this definitely appeared to promote second language production in her students, the social dynamics of this classroom may have changed due to her policy. This topic deserves more attention in the professional literature and from staff planning a dual language program.

Implementation of the Seven Components at the Early Childhood Development Center

Defining the Model

In the planning stages of the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC), personnel decided that a 50/50 dual language model would be the program of choice. Because the ECDC was built to house only one classroom of each grade (prekindergarten age three to third grade), the implementation of the 50/50 model has varied.

In the three-year-old classroom, the teacher began the delivery of English instruction on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. The Spanish instruction was given on Tuesdays and Thursdays. To ensure that the

children were receiving an equal amount of instruction in both languages, the teacher then switched her instructional schedule at mid-semester. Spanish instruction was then given on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. The English instruction was switched to Tuesdays and Thursdays. The change did not impact the children negatively.

The teachers in the four-year-old and kindergarten classrooms took a different approach to the delivery of the 50/50 two-way language instructional program. At these grades, a multi-age configuration is in place. A certified bilingual teacher instructs the four-year-olds and the kindergarten students daily in Spanish while a teacher with an ESL certificate instructs the same children in English. The teachers plan the daily schedule so that the children receive 50 percent of their instruction in English and Spanish. This approach has also proven to be very successful.

The first and second grade teachers team-teach; however, the students are not multi-aged. The first grade teacher teaches reading/language arts integrated with social studies and science in English to first and second graders. The second grade teacher teaches Spanish reading/language arts integrated with social studies and mathematics to the first and second graders. The teachers have developed a schedule that equalizes the instructional time of both languages. Students move from one classroom to another. Transitional time is minimized because of the close proximity of the classrooms. This configuration has proven to be successful and conducive to student success.

Students in the third grade are self-contained. The teacher is currently utilizing a bilingual enrichment model to teach students in the Spanish language. Students receive their content instruction in science and social studies in Spanish.

Gradual Phase-In of Program

The Center opened in 1996 with three classrooms. Twenty-two three-, four-, and five-year-olds participated in the first dual language program in Corpus Christi. First and second grade classrooms were established the following year. Instruction at each grade level followed the philosophy of the two-way language program as written

by Virginia Collier, noted author in bilingual education (Collier, 1997 a & b). In 1998, a third grade classroom was created. Students currently enrolled in the Center then had the opportunity to participate in the program through third grade

The second emphasis of the ECDC is early childhood, a period generally accepted by educators and researchers to be from birth to age eight. For this reason, there are no immediate plans to expand the Center to include fourth and fifth grade in the future.

Instruction Reflecting Population

Students attending the ECDC are chosen by lottery. Applications are taken in February of each new year to create a new class of twenty-two three-year-olds. Children who are three years of age on or before September first and reside in the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD) are eligible to apply for enrollment at the Center. Parents of children ages four to eight must also complete applications to be eligible to fill available slots at the higher-grade levels. Slots become available as families move out of the CCISD attendance zone, parents decide to have all siblings at one school location, or students violate CCISD attendance or behavior policies.

In accordance with the criteria on the application, children are placed in one of the four quadrants illustrated in Table 1. Approximately 63% of the students accepted to the ECDC fall in the at-risk category.

Table 1
Distribution of ECDC Student Population

English Dominant Free Lunch 7	Spanish Dominant Free Lunch 7
English Dominant Non-Free Lunch 4	Spanish Dominant Non-Free Lunch 4

Utilizing this method of selecting the population allows for equal representation of children. There is a two-step process to the lottery. Students are first randomly selected based on language and socio-economic status. Next, students pass a language proficiency test in their first language. Children must score at a level C of proficiency based on the IDEA© Pre-Proficiency Test developed by Ballard & Tighe, Publishers. A level C score on the test indicates that the child is limited in either Spanish or English speaking skills. The ECDC accepts this score as an average score and an indication that the child has sufficient skills to be successful in a 50/50 dual language program (Ballard & Tighe, Publishers, 2001).

Because the program of record is based on a 50/50 dual language model, the student population should mirror the instructional delivery used by the teacher. An equal representation of each group strengthens instruction at the Center. Children are paired or placed equally in center situations so they can interact with one another in their first language. This strategy enables second language learners to be exposed to the second language in a non-threatening environment. Teachers reinforce the second language through small and whole group instruction.

Materials

One major benefit of the ECDC/CCISD partnership is that they share a common goal. The ECDC staff is afforded a myriad of materials to implement an effective dual language program. The Corpus Christi Independent School District's textbook adoption committee voted to adopt the English and Spanish version of the kindergarten program, *Kindergarten place,* developed by Scholastic, Inc. (2000). To provide consistency in programs, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi purchased prekindergarten programs available through Scholastic, Inc (2000). First, second, and third grade

students use a basal reading program published by McGraw Hill (2001). The program is available in English and Spanish and is the District's adopted textbook.

In addition to these materials, the ECDC staff uses two Spanish programs made available through grants written by bilingual professors. *Estrellita Accelerated Beginning Spanish Reading* was developed and published by Karen Myer (1999). *Cancionero* was developed and published by Hampton-Brown (2000). These two programs are used by teachers in the prekindergarten four-year-old class to the third grade class. A program for the prekindergarten three-year-old class has been ordered for next school year. Both of these programs have a home-school connection to elicit parent involvement. Teachers also use *Pan y Canela* and *Elefonética* both published by Hampton Brown (2000), and additional ESL materials provided by both the university and the school district.

Each classroom houses a Spanish library and a variety of trade books. Harcourt Brace (1999) is the textbook of choice for students in kindergarten to grade three in the area of mathematics. Teachers have large quantities of manipulatives to enhance lessons in oral language development and mathematics.

Teacher Training

As noted in most educational journals, staff development is a key to successful programs and schools. Four of the six teachers currently at the ECDC are bilingual certified. One of the two other teachers is ESL certified and the second is currently working toward ESL certification.

All teachers are employees of the CCISD and as such are given the opportunity to attend bilingual and ESL workshops and inservices sponsored by CCISD each year. Another benefit of the university/public school partnership is that the university's bilingual professors also afford the staff the opportunity to participate in a variety of staff development experiences to strengthen bilingual instruction. Through CCISD's Title VII Program, the ECDC staff has also attended dual language retreats and symposiums, workshops that strengthen the teachers' Spanish grammar skills, and inservices that introduce valuable teaching strategies.

Administrative Support

In any effective school, the backing of an administrator is essential. The current administrator is an avid supporter of bilingual, ESL, and two-way language programs. She serves as a role model to students, parents, teachers, university students, and all others who pass through the school doors. She promotes the philosophies and goals of the program while always seeking new and innovative methods for the delivery of a quality education.

The Role of Elicited Response

Because of its commitment to the dual language program, the ECDC staff has implemented a program to help students understand that each language is equally valued. Monday, Wednesday, and Friday have been designated as Spanish Days. Teachers post signs on classroom doors and inside the classroom that read "*Esta es una escuela de estudiantes bilingües. Hoy es dia de español.*" (This is a school of bilingual students. Today is Spanish day.) Students are greeted and spoken to in Spanish throughout the building. Additionally, teachers utilize a 10 to 15 minute whole group strategy entitled *Noticias*. The exercise is a short oral language development activity used to reinforce students' knowledge of the Spanish language. Tuesday and Thursday are noted as the English Days and the same activities are implemented to reinforce English.

The implementation of language of the day practice helps eliminate the fear a second language learner might encounter in responding to a teacher, another student, or any other person in the building. It also tells students that both languages are valued equally. Setting high expectations for students and teachers in both languages enhances the education program.

Labeling items in classrooms also shows students that both languages are valued. Furthermore, it assists those students who might be reluctant to respond due to fear of mispronunciation or incorrect use of a word. Teachers use blue labels for English words and red labels for Spanish. Each classroom teacher uses a word wall to the same end.

Evaluation

Several instruments are used at the Center to evaluate the success of the program. The name of each test and its' purpose are stated in Table 2.

Table 2
Assessment Instruments Used at the Early Childhood Development Center

	Purpose	Author/Publishers
Pre-Idea Proficiency Test (Pre-IPT)	To determine the language proficiency of a child in prekindergarten (3 to 5 years of age).	Ballard & Tighe (2001)
Idea Proficiency Test (IPT)	To determine the language proficiency of a child in kindergarten to sixth grade.	Ballard & Tighe (2001)
Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI)	To diagnose reading skill and comprehension development in the English language for kindergarten to second grade.	Texas Education Agency (2001) (State of Texas)
Tejas LEE	To diagnose reading skill and comprehension development in the Spanish language for kindergarten to second grade.	Texas Education Agency (2001) (State of Texas)
Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS)	To determine the mastery of knowledge and skills in reading and mathematics in grade three	Texas Education Agency (2001) (State of Texas)

Analyses of the Pre-IPT and the IPT oral language assessments since the inception of the program have shown that most students'

language skills either remain the same or increase. No regression has been noted in either language (Ballard & Tighe, 2001).

The Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI) is administered twice a year to students in kindergarten, first and second grades. This diagnostic test measures a child's reading and comprehension abilities as "still developing" or "developed" based upon the mastery of certain concepts at each level of administration. The test consists of a screening and inventory section.

At the kindergarten level the screening section measures graphophonemic knowledge and phonemic awareness. The inventory evaluates the student on the following four concepts: (a) book and print awareness, (b) phonemic awareness (c) graphophonemic knowledge, and (d) listening comprehension.

The first grade-screening test measures graphophonemic knowledge, word reading, and phonemic awareness. First grade students are then administered the inventory section, which contains the following six concepts: phonemic awareness, graphophonemic knowledge, reading accuracy, reading fluency, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension.

The TPRI screening section at the second grade level measures only reading. In the inventory section, students are evaluated on graphophonemic knowledge, reading accuracy, reading fluency, and reading comprehension.

In September of 1999, Dr. Shelly Jackson conducted a study "Influence of Early Childhood Education on Reading Development As Measured by the Texas Primary Reading Inventory." Dr. Jackson used the TPRI as her measure of achievement. The results indicated that the students at the ECDC were benefiting from early literacy experiences. More recently, instructors have used the TPRI scores to individualize instruction for increased student achievement and to monitor performance so that all students are reading on grade level by the third grade, a goal established by the Governor of Texas (TEA, 2001).

The Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) was administered to students in first and second grade in the spring of 1998. First grade scores in reading and math were at the fiftieth percentile or better; second grade scores were well below the fiftieth percentile. In the spring of 1999, both grades improved in the reading area. Second grade math scores improved by 57 percentage points and first grade math scores were maintained from the previous year (see Table 3).

Language arts scores in second grade improved by 51 percentage points. The language arts section of the test is not given to first graders. In the 1999-2000 school year, the Corpus Christi Independent School District ceased the administration of the ITBS because its norming timelines had expired.

Table 3
ECDC Students' Performance on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, 1998-1999

Grade	Reading		Math		Language Arts	
	1998	1999	1998	1999	1998	1999
First	55	65	56	56		
Second	28	65	17	74	17	68

Third grade students are administered the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) in the areas of reading and mathematics. Table 4 illustrates the scores from spring assessment, 1999 to 2001. Reading scores dropped from 1999 to 2000 by five percent and math scores increased from 86% in 1999 to 94% in 2000. Test results from the spring 2001 assessment indicate an increase in both reading and math. These results earned the ECDC state ratings of "Recognized" in 1999 and "Exemplary" in 2000. The ECDC received an "Exemplary" rating again in 2001 (TEA, 1999; TEA, 2000; TEA, 2001).

Table 4
Performance of ECDC Third-Grade Students on Texas Assessment of Academic Skills, 1999-2001

Year of Administration	Reading	Math	State Rating
1999	100	86	Recognized
2000	95	94	Exemplary
2001	100	100	Exemplary

Beyond standardized testing, transformational leaders at the ECDC use portfolio assessment to gauge student learning in both languages. As a research facility, the ECDC leaders will continue to seek effective means of assessing the viability of programs. However, past and current methods used have proven the program to be successful.

Conclusion

The ECDC staff will continue to refine and redefine best practices in the area of bilingual/dual language programs. Their goals as educators are to: (1) have students leave the Center as academically successful at age eight, and (2) develop effective teaching strategies and methodologies grounded in research that can be replicated and utilized by educators at local, state and national levels.

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Chapter 3

University/Public School Partnership Provides A Jump Start for Three-Year-Olds

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"Collaboration is an unnatural act among consenting adults."
-Author Unknown

Introduction

While public school education offers students an important avenue for achievement and success in today's marketplace, the home and the community provide equally important influences on student learning. Collaboration serves as the bridge between the home, school, and community to prepare students for the complex issues they face and the multitude of decisions that they must make as they interact with their environment. These complex societal issues call for comprehensive services that respond to the entire family unit.

Approximately ten years ago, the National School Boards' Association called for joint action to address the growing concern for the measures schools and other systems could take to help battle the increase in student drop out rates, crime, drug abuse, and suicide (Levy, Kagan, & Copple, 1992). Since that time, changes in the ways that effective teaching, learning, and school organization are perceived have led to changes in educators' thinking about collaboration. The shift from top-down leadership to shared decision making has greatly affected the role of collaboration.

This chapter will focus on the process of collaboration between the faculty at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC), who were involved in the Early Childhood Development Center (See Chapter 1), and the Zavala Special Emphasis School (SES). More specifically, it will address how collaboration served to develop and implement an early childhood program, the Zavala Early Childhood Development Center (Zavala ECDC), to:

1. Advance early childhood education through comprehensive high quality teaching and research efforts specifically designed to meet the needs of three-year-old children in the Zavala SES attendance zone
2. Provide professional development opportunities for in-service and pre-service teachers
3. Promote literacy and community health initiatives
4. Promote dual-language literacy development.

Prior to the spring of 2001, the Zavala SES offered a dual language program to four-year-old children and a special education program for three- and four- year-olds. The collaboration was an effort to replicate the regular education three-year-old program at the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) situated on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) campus and expand the early start opportunities to an additional forty-four children in the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD).

Background on Collaboration

The current trend of collaboration among educators, families, and communities has an impact on the way educational services are delivered. Educational partnerships connect schools to community and social service agencies, cultural institutions, businesses, industries, and institutions of higher education to pursue joint activities (Tushnet, 1993). No one-way has emerged to ensure successful partnerships. Wynn (1998) proposes that there be formalized partnership agreements, collaborative staff development, simplified systems of entry, outreach initiatives to increase access to comprehensive services, sharing of funding sources' resources, and the use of validated information to enhance quality.

The difficulties in creating structures that support collaboration between schools, communities, and universities are well documented (Kot & Bruner, 1999; Rosenblum, DiCecco, Taylor & Adelmann, 1995; Clark, 1994; Schlessman-Frost, 1994; Fradd, 1992). These researchers note that collaborating often raises issues of power, influence, identity, territoriality, and integrity and requires ongoing communication and negotiation among stakeholders. Austin and Baldwin (1992) posit that each collaborative team goes through four steps: choosing colleagues or team members, dividing the labor, establishing work guidelines, and terminating the collaboration or seeing it through to the next level. In addition, successful collaborations acknowledge and confront problems, using them as an opportunity to build relationships among partners (Tushnet, 1993).

Collaboration is attractive as a construct because of the benefits perceived by stakeholders, including increased productivity (Austin & Baldwin, 1992; Fox & Faver, 1984); reduced fragmentation of services that better target increasingly scarce resources (Lugg &

Boyd, 1993); broadened partnerships to provide more direct services (Clark, 1994); synergy producing the best ideas and best instruction (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2000; Maeroff, 1988); and strong working relationships among partners (Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, 1994; Hubbard, Kennedy, Sutton & Trefny, 1991).

Leadership is a critical variable to help build commitment and gather resources for collaboration (Wagner, 1994; Tushnet, 1993; Lugg & Boyd, 1993). Effective leadership helps facilitate comprehensive planning and informed decision-making, and ensures that power and resources are appropriately distributed. Strong, collaborative leaders also ensure that partners no longer run parallel programs at a common site, but have created a new program that offers participants more than the individual agencies can offer separately (Dillworth, 1996). Kuo (1999) found that a successful way to integrate organizational change is to build support for collaboration starting at the top.

An added benefit of collaboration is organizational change. Hubbard et. al. (1991) focused on the iterative nature of the collaborative planning process, stating that "collaborations are fundamental to reform" (p. 15). Current trends in educational reform emphasize strengthening and transforming school relations with parents and the community to make them more collaborative (Adler & Seppanen, 1993). Further, Fradd (1992) posited that as administrators, teachers, and parents learn to collaborate, they increase learning opportunities for themselves and for their children/students.

In order for leaders to build new ways of working together, it is important to develop and implement support systems which include time to plan, staff development/training, and technical and logistical support. Liontos (1990) outlined steps to take in order to work together collaboratively:

1. Study community, state, and national demographics
2. Go to joint conferences where structured dialogue between agencies is encouraged
3. Set up joint committee meetings such as between education and health
4. Note successful collaborative examples

5. Involve key officials for inspiration and organizational backing and key stakeholders, such as staff who work directly with the children
6. Encourage information sharing among systems about children and families, and reward staff for working with others outside their own sector
7. Stress prevention and early intervention
8. Use effective team building for shared control and decision making
9. Establish common goals to be implemented across agencies, spelling out accountability
10. Focus on process, stressing that collaboration is a means, not an end
11. Commit the necessary resources recognizing that collaboration takes time and energy (p. 2).

In 1988, a survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics found that 40% of the nation's public schools had some kind of formal partnerships with an external institution (Clark, 1994). Ten years after the study was conducted, the figure had increased as schools, community organizations, universities, and the community of parents routinely collaborated to promote student success and achievement. Clark (1994) stated that the "Integrated delivery of services to children, youth, and their families will increase the likelihood that young Americans will become healthy, educated, and responsible adult citizens" (p.5). This position was supported by Boyer (1991) who said, "It is my conviction that you cannot have an island of academic excellence in a sea of community indifference" (p.5).

Although home/school/community partnerships have been in existence for much longer, universities as partners with the home, school, and community is a more recent phenomenon. Austin and Baldwin (1992) noted that faculty collaboration has grown over the last 100 years. Maeroff (1998) reported that as recently as 15 years ago, "Voices calling for closer ties between schools and colleges reverberated across a landscape in which often few ears were attuned to hearing them" (p.9).

García (1998) addressed the involvement of universities, communities, and schools in the education of children who come from

diverse families. He wrote that the university has a broader outreach mission, as part of its public service role, to engage with and assist in the improvement of the quality of pre/k-12 education, particularly in underrepresented communities. He challenged universities to address the issue by broadening the mission of university collaboration and outreach. Maeroff (1998) concurred, stating that to improve the education of children who are educationally disadvantaged requires the collaboration of many schools, agencies, and departments of the university. These groups must forge programs that deal with the whole child and his or her family. Rowe (1998) simply called for the integration of research and pedagogy in collaborative partnerships between schools and universities.

Collaborative partnerships need to be based on an aligned view of the elements of high quality service delivery and the outcomes participants wish to achieve (Melaville & Blank, 1991). To plan for implementing activities that rely on collaboration, and to measure the resulting outcomes, evaluation of the objectives and programs is essential. Flynn and Hargin (1987) reported that the evaluation of interagency collaboration requires a broad perspective because of its multidimensional concept. They posit that the evaluation should occur at those points where the dimensions of collaboration interact with one another and it should proceed through developmental stages. Hubbard et. al.(1991) calls for both the collection and reporting of both quantitative and qualitative data as important evidence of the success of the collaboration.

Organizing collaborative partnerships that are pro-family requires flexibility and outcome-oriented planning. Kunesch and Farley (1993) caution innovators to remember that change begins with individuals, not institutions, and that establishing communication and decision-making processes is critical. Because pro-family solutions to overcoming complex barriers that interfere with student learning require access to interrelated systems, collaboration is the best hope for success. More systematic research on collaboration is essential, as well, with carefully crafted studies being undertaken to enhance opportunities for successful collaborations.

The University/School Partnership

One such opportunity for study and collaboration was and is the Zavala ECDC. The focus of the partnership was to afford three-year-old children of primarily low socio-economic backgrounds an early start in their academic preparation. The program, a replication of the early childhood dual language program at the ECDC on the TAMUCC campus, was initiated in part from a congressional appropriation facilitated through the efforts of early childhood advocate Texas Senator Kay B. Hutchison. The congressional appropriation is managed by the Federal Improvement Program for Secondary Education (FIPSE). This appropriation was supplemented by the CCISD and TAMUCC.

Funds from the congressional appropriation provided for two teachers and paraprofessionals to staff each of the three-year-old classrooms. Additional funding was allocated to provide:

1. Professional enrichment support services
2. Instructional support (instructors in the arts/music/motor development)
3. Nurse/health services
4. Partial security and custodial services
5. Furniture;
6. Equipment including computers, printers, VCRs, and TVs
7. Instructional software
8. Materials and supplies
9. Utilities;
10. Transportation including field trips
11. Meals.

The CCISD funded the construction of two classrooms. In-kind contributions were provided in the form of CCISD staff that worked closely with the Interim Director of the TAMUCC ECDC to develop and implement the three-year-old program. The staff included the Interim Executive Director for Instruction, the Coordinator of Early Childhood Education, the Title VII Bilingual Director and two staff members, the Director of Technology, staff from the Finance

Department, and the principals of the Zavala SES and the university Early Childhood Development Center.

Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi provided funding for substitutes to release TAMUCC, ECDC, and Zavala teachers to meet with the new faculty and provide guidance in planning and materials selection. Zavala ECDC personnel were also included in staff development provided to the university ECDC teachers, including such topics as art, theater arts, literacy, and bilingual instruction. In-kind contributions were provided in the form of the university ECDC's Director's time, a bilingual faculty member's time, as well as a physical education faculty member's time. The Interim Director of the Early Childhood Development Center served as the project director for the congressional appropriation. The project director's responsibilities included convening meetings to monitor construction progress, planning and implementing the program, recruiting and selecting the personnel, orchestrating the purchase of materials and equipment, and recruiting and selecting the students.

Planning for the Zavala ECDC began in early Fall of 2000. All planning meetings included personnel from TAMUCC and CCISD and, at times, additional personnel as necessary, such as the Assistant Dean for the College of Education, CCISD's Executive Director for Finance, and staff from transportation and food services. Among the planning activities were:

1. Identifying criteria for the teachers and paraprofessionals
2. Reviewing applicant files and interviewing and selecting the teachers and staff
3. Identifying criteria for the selection of the students
4. Scheduling and providing orientations for parents
5. Establishing a timeline to ensure that staff and students were identified, materials and equipment were ordered and personnel had appropriate time to organize the classroom and plan for instruction
6. Refining the budget
7. Orchestrating a press conference highlighting the collaboration between TAMUCC and CCISD.

During the fall, parent orientations were also held at the Zavala SES to explain the program and recruit students. Presentations were made in English and Spanish and parents were informed that the program was a full academic preparation program that required daily attendance and parental involvement. Because many families had already placed their children in other programs, such as Head Start, the decision was made to expand the pool for identifying students to a neighboring school, Garcia Elementary School. That school was also providing a full day dual language program to four-year-olds, which would provide a transition opportunity for those beginning the three-year-old dual language program at the Zavala ECDC. Parent orientations were also held at Garcia Elementary School.

Parents were asked to submit applications and children were identified on the basis of meeting the following criteria:

1. Three-fourths of the children had to qualify for free and reduced lunch (this would reflect the demographics of the CCISD as well as the ECDC located on the TAMUCC campus).
2. One-half of the children had to be dominant speakers of Spanish and one-half had to be dominant speakers of English to ensure the success of the dual language component of the program.
3. Additionally, they all had to be "potty trained."

Once the children were identified, they were assessed for readiness and language proficiency. CCISD personnel and TAMUCC students and the principal of the TAMUCC ECDC assisted with the assessments. Staff from the Nueces County Health Department were available to provide the necessary inoculations and staff from CCISD's food services to collect the necessary information. An orientation for parents and students was held prior to the opening of school to familiarize the children and their parents with the facility and the procedures for dropping off and picking up the children.

The Zavala ECDC opened its doors to the students in the Zavala attendance area on Tuesday, January 16, 2001 and students in the Garcia attendance area began two weeks later on January 29, 2001. A total of forty-two students participated in the program at the Zavala ECDC.

In the spring of 2001, additional support was also contracted for the Zavala ECDC. This included a part-time paraprofessional to provide motor development activities for the children. It also provided additional planning time for the teachers. A theatre arts faculty member was also hired part-time to work with the teachers and the children on Fridays. Title VII staff from CCISD provided parental involvement and staff development opportunities that included the parents, teachers, and paraprofessionals of the Zavala ECDC.

Central to the success of the collaboration, in addition to the key factors mentioned at the onset of this paper, was the unwavering commitment to providing services to this particular population of children. All stakeholders gave above and beyond their commitment to their professional roles to ensure the effective implementation of this early childhood program. For example, the principal of the Zavala SES facilitated additional help from paraprofessionals on his campus to assist the first-year teachers and paraprofessionals in setting up the classrooms. Both of the teachers were December graduates of TAMUCC. One was an early childhood specialist and one was a bilingual education specialist. The university ECDC principal donated evenings and daytime to meet with parents and assess the children. The CCISD staff, already overtaxed with responsibilities, were very willing to meet regularly and in the evenings to plan, meet with teachers and parents, or assess children. The bilingual faculty member met regularly with the TAMUCC ECDC teachers and principals in addition to his administrative and teaching responsibilities. The director, as "chief worrier" for the project, also made regular visits to ensure the progress of the construction and worked with university and school district budget personnel to administer the complex grant, in addition to her role as Assistant Dean and Interim Director of the TAMUCC ECDC, and Coordinator of Teacher Education and the Center for Professional Development of Teachers.

Conclusions

The Zavala Early Childhood Development Center clearly reflects a partnership that models the key ingredients required for successful collaboration — all key players were involved and shared ownership; a realistic strategy was used that reflected a joint vision, goals, and responsibility for outcomes; and change was institutionalized.

Final Thoughts

No words can capture the transformation in the teachers and the children by mid-February. The teachers were calm, self-assured, and smiling at their newfound skills and confidence. The students were orderly, attentive in whole group activities, sharing in centers, and competent during independent seatwork. These students will have a major jump-start in their academic journey because of the early socialization opportunity made possible by the commitment of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and the Corpus Christi Independent School District to collaborate in a university/public school partnership.

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Chapter 4

What's Appropriate About Developmentally Appropriate Practices? Observing Early Childhood Development Center Classroom Environments

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Background

Research on effective schools shows that teachers who use a variety of methodological strategies promote the skills of their students most efficiently. Because children's backgrounds, experiences, socialization, and learning styles are so different, any one method is likely to succeed with some children and fail with others. All individuals who are involved in the education of young children—teachers, administrators and parents—are responsible for ensuring that practices are developmentally appropriate. Unfortunately many educators are not sufficiently familiar with developmentally appropriate practices for very young children. This lack of understanding about the practices that best promote child development results from the failure of early childhood professionals to articulate clearly their practices and the research-based criteria for why they do what they do.

In an effort to more clearly define developmentally appropriate practice and programs, the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) describes the three most important aspects of developmentally appropriate practice as being those which (a) are appropriate for the child's age, (b) are appropriate for the individuality of the child, and (c) respect an understanding of the child's culture (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). Further, Morrison (2001) states, "Quality programs use developmentally appropriate practices to implement the curriculum and achieve their program goals (p. 252)." These fundamental tenets undergird the basis for developmentally appropriate practices for young children.

According to the National Association for the Education of Young Children, "The principle of developmentally appropriate practices (DAP) is that the younger the children and the more diverse their background, the wider the variety of teaching methods and materials required" (Durkin, 1980; Katz & Chard, 1989; Katz, Raths, & Torres, undated, as cited in Bredekamp, 1987). While these practices do not entail any one specific teaching style, guidelines for the conduct of DAP classrooms specify conditions that promote positive learning and are based on research on how children learn.

The developmentally appropriate concept entails the organization of learning environments that reflect both normative and individual expectations of the learner. For example, four-year-olds require active

involvement in their learning. An appropriate environment is one that provides hands-on opportunities with materials, rather than one that requires young children to sit still for long periods of time doing worksheets. Individual appropriateness refers to consideration of children's individual interests, strengths and experiences.

Dunn and Kotos (1997) report that although teachers often espouse the concept of developmentally appropriate practice, they often grapple with its implementation in the classroom. Further, they suggest that more research is needed in the areas of support and implementation of this vital concept.

Research studies consistently report that young children's lives are enhanced when they participate in a program which values and encourages age appropriate, individually appropriate, and culturally appropriate practices. For example, the High Scope (Evans & Meyers, 1994) studies reveal that by age 23, individuals who had participated in DAP education as children were 37.7% less likely to have been arrested for a felony than the individuals who had participated in teacher-directed programs. Further, children from appropriate programs were twice as likely to graduate from college and were more willing to accept responsibility for their actions than those who had not attended quality programs (Schweinhart & Weikart, 1998). A study which compared the arrest records of 1000 at-risk Chicago 18-year-olds confirmed that 26% of the subjects who had not attended a quality three- and four-year-old program had at least one arrest, whereas only 16% of those who had attended a quality three- and four-year-old program had at least one arrest. Only 8% of the group who had attended quality three- and four-year-old programs had two or more arrests while 15% of the other group had two or more arrests (Children's Defense Fund, 2001).

The Children's Defense Fund (2001), a non-profit advocacy group, reports that high quality appropriate early educational experiences have positive effects on the academic performance of all children, but especially of those who are at high risk of school failure. Perhaps one of the most important research projects concerning appropriate practices for young children is the Abecedarian Study (Paciorek & Munro, 2000). Recent reporting suggests that children participating in quality developmentally appropriate programs have significantly higher mental test scores from toddlerhood through age 21 than those who do not participate. Further, mathematics, reading,

and writing achievement scores were consistently higher for those children participating in appropriate programs. In addition, the children in the appropriate programs were significantly more likely to still be in school at age 21 and two times more likely to attend a four-year college. While a significant difference between the children in an appropriate program and those who did not attend such a program was not found, 65% of the children in the appropriate program were employed compared to 50% of the control group.

Developmentally appropriate practice principles were formulated in an age of increasing accountability and evaluation as a response to the widespread use of inappropriate formal teaching techniques for young children and the overemphasis on standardized achievement and achievement testing of narrowly defined academic skills (Texas Education Agency, 1995). In spite of these principles, many early childhood teachers readily employ formal teaching and assessment strategies. Thus, information about specific definitions of principles in practice may help teachers develop alternatives to traditional teaching strategies that nonetheless satisfy demands for accountability.

Focus of the Present Study

A primary goal of this study was to provide a descriptive account of practices in five early elementary classrooms wherein developmentally appropriate practice principles have been the focus of curriculum development and teacher in-service training. Three specific prescriptive components of DAP were explored in this study: age appropriateness, individual appropriateness, and center based instruction. Collectively, these components reflected recognition that children's needs are different. The extent to which these three prescriptive practices were a part of the daily reality in the observed classrooms was assessed through non-obtrusive observational methods:

1. Age appropriate curriculum. Curriculum based on expectations formed from research in child development about the regular timing of growth in cognitive, socioemotional and physical development.
2. Individually appropriate curriculum. Curriculum that reflected the fact that each child is a unique person with an individual pattern and timing of growth, as well as an

individual personality, learning style and family background. This curriculum can be planned in accordance with teacher observations, standardized assessments and consultation with parents.

3. Heterogeneous DAP Learning Centers. Curriculum organized around materials that are concrete, real, and relevant to the lives of young children (Bredekamp, 1987) Teachers prepare the environment for children to learn through active exploration and interaction with the materials. Learning activities arranged to maximize individual exploration and task completion at one's own pace.

Method Subjects and Setting

The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) was established in 1996 as a model for best practices in teaching and learning. It was important that approaches developed there be generalizable. Accordingly, participating students were drawn from the population of the large, 42,000 student body of metropolitan school district with the use of a stratified random sampling procedure to ensure representativeness with respect to income and home language use of the overall community population. One hundred and ten (110) students (aged 3 years to 8 years old) were selected from a stratified random lottery selection. Because of the mission of the ECDC, two-thirds of the students were drawn from free/reduced lunch eligible families and the remaining were considered non-free lunch eligible. In addition, a second stratification variable of home language background was used to select 50% of the students from Spanish speaking households and 50% from English dominant households.

Classroom Observations

A series of observation periods were scheduled for each of the five participating classrooms at a university-based early childhood development center educational facility. University students, in coordination with faculty and one graduate student, conducted

observations from an unobtrusive observation deck above the classroom.

Classroom Observation Schedule

A systematic sampling of observation periods was arranged. Observers recorded classroom events during fifteen separate 15-minute blocks randomly scheduled throughout the day. This schedule of observation resulted in a data corpus of 225 minutes per class, for a total of 18.75 hours.

Training of Observers

All observers were current students or past graduates of a university course on developmentally appropriate practices. The students were required as part of their course work to observe several classrooms. The observers were recruited and trained by TAMUCC faculty, the authors of this chapter. Observers were trained in the use of a coding manual derived from criteria defined by Bredekamp (1987). Reliability of coding categories was established by a re-coding of 25% of transcripts. Agreement between independent raters reached 94%.

Coding of Center Based Instruction

In addition to the coding scheme developed for this study, a coding scheme presented in a report of the Texas Education Agency (TEA) (1995) was used to evaluate the existence of teacher-identified centers and their ratings of availability and quality. A trained rater using NAEYC criteria rated these also.
The second author conducted a 'walk through' of each classroom in which teachers:

1. Described the centers available for student use.
2. Noted the availability of the centers throughout the year
3. Rated their own satisfaction with the quality of the center.

In addition to teacher input, the second author compared the centers to those described in TEA (1995) as important components of the learning environment of a truly developmentally appropriate

classroom. The percentage of TEA-endorsed centers available in each classroom and the extent of their availability was recorded.

Coding of Field Notes

Content coding on field notes focused on identifying NAEYC-identified strategies for appropriate practices. The coding categories were taken from TEA (1995). The rationale and coding scheme was adapted from Bredekamp (1987). Table 1 shows the complete coding categories used in the study. The categories are:

A. Developmentally appropriate strategies for teacher/student interaction: A key philosophy in NAEYC concerns students' direction of their own learning. When students direct their own activities they tend to be more engaged and gains tend to be longer lasting.
   1. The classroom environment was rated globally regarding the extent of teacher directed vs. student directed learning.
   2. Interpersonal environment was rated with respect to teacher student verbal and non-verbal interaction.

B. Developmentally appropriate strategies for promoting student academic skills: Three strategies were coded in terms of teacher behavior as it related to promoting student academic skills. Specific definitions were used from TEA (1995):
   1. Encouraging language development.
   2. Encouraging creative expression and appreciation of the arts.
   3. Encouraging children to think reason question and experiment (Mathematics and Science)

C. Developmentally appropriate strategies for establishing a heterogeneously organized learning environment. Center based instruction offers children with a variety of opportunities for discovery learning and social interaction with peers. Center based approaches to education are facilitative of DAP practices as they allow for a diversity of pacing and organization of task difficulty. Measures include:
   1. Percentage of NAEYC Centers available
   2. Teacher rating of center quality

Table 1
Summary of NAEYC Coding

1a. Developmentally appropriate strategy for Teacher/student interaction

A-1 Staff interact frequently with children. Express respect for children — especially during arrival and departure.

A-2 Availability and responsiveness to children — listen to them with attention and respect.

A-3 Speak to children in a friendly and courteous manner—staff ask open-ended questions and speak individually to children.

A-5 Staff foster independence in routine activities like picking up toys and wiping spills.

A-6 Staff use positive guidance techniques: redirection, positive reinforcement, encouragement rather than competition or comparison, no humiliation or frightening discipline techniques.

A-7 Sound of environment is pleasant—spontaneous laughter rather than forced quiet.

A-8 Staff assist children to be comfortable and relaxed in their play and work.

A-9 Foster cooperative play and prosocial behavior.

A-10 Developmentally appropriate exceptions of children's social behavior.

1b. Developmentally appropriate Strategies for promoting academic/socioemotional skill development

B-7(a) Foster self-concept
Ex. Use children's names in songs
Display children's work
Allow children to make choices
Allow children to initiate activities

B-7(e) Enhance physical development and skills
Ex. Fine Motor activities such as manipulative and art projects

B-7(f) Encourage sound health and nutritional practices
Ex. Cooking activities
Hand washing

B-8 Provide time for children to choose their own activities during the day. Respect children's right to choose not to participate.

B-9 Facilitate smooth and unregimented transitions between activities—Children do not always move as a group and transitions are planned times for learning.

1c. Indicators for use in coding Child-Initiated vs. Adult-Initiated Activities

Adult Initiated: Adult instructed the child to do this activity in a

particular way; item/s to be used were chosen for the child and the activities that may be done at this time are predetermined. The Teacher may be sitting close guiding a child or coaching the activity as the children go along.

Indicators that the time may be teacher-initiated:

1. Do all/most of the tables contain the same or similar activities?
2. Is there an example of the finished project/activity for the children to see?
3. Is the teacher guiding the children through the activity?
4. Are the children required to remain seated at the activity they are working on/are most of the children sitting at the activity?
5. Is the teacher guiding children towards or away from certain activities?
6. Do all the children seem to know what to do without interacting with/asking their peers? Are all the children performing a similar task?

Child-Initiated: An adult may have set up an activity, but the children suggested or chose to do it without the adult suggesting or directing the children. The tables are available for the children to choose activities and the children are guiding the activities.
Indicators that the time may be child-initiated:

1. Do the tables have different activities on them?
2. Are the children moving freely from table to table, etc?
3. Is the teacher asking the children open-ended questions about what they are working on?
4. Are the children interacting with each other—asking their peers about what they are doing or requesting peer involvement in their activity?

Results

Table 2 describes the percentage of NAEYC-defined developmentally appropriate practice indicators observed in 5 ECDC classrooms.

Table 2.
Percentage of NAEYC-defined Developmentally Appropriate Practice Indicators Observed in 5 ECDC Classrooms

NAEYC Indicator	Range Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms	Average Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms
Child Directed: Children are allowed to choose freely from simultaneously presented learning activities.	0% - 40%	16%
Children worked alone or in small groups	36% - 67%	58%
Child worked with teacher	33% - 64%	42%
Encourage Language Development (B-7d)	55% - 100%	74%
Teacher spoke no Spanish	0% - 100%	38%
Teacher spoke mostly Spanish	0% - 50%	43%
Encourage thinking, reasoning and experimenting (Mathematics and Science Activities: B-7c)**	48% - 92%	74%
Encourage creative expression and appreciation of the arts (B-7g)	35% - 95%	69%

**Indicator derived from Bredekamp, 1987

The results shown in Table 2 indicate that most observers rated the classrooms as teacher-directed. Only an average of 16% of the activities rated was considered child-directed. This was reflected primarily by the fact that teachers determined the time when activities began or ended and directed students to particular stations accordingly. The range across classrooms from 0% to 40% suggests that the teacher directed-ness was the modal strategy in all of the classrooms observed.

A consistent average of approximately 70% of activities across all classrooms was observed with respect to teaching strategies that promote language, mathematics, and creative arts thinking skills. While somewhat variable from classroom to classroom, teaching

activities largely reflected consistency with developmentally appropriate philosophy.

Similar variability was observed with the general responsiveness of teachers to indicators focusing on the fostering of positive socioemotional classroom experiences shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
Percentage of NAEYC-defined Developmentally Appropriate Practice Indicators for Positive Socioemotional Classroom Environments

NAEYC Indicator	Range Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms	Average Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms
General interpersonal responsiveness to children: e.g. listening and asking open-ended questions (A1, A2, A3)	0% - 100%	59%
Fosters independence in routine activities: Picking up toys and wiping spills (A5)	0% - 100%	95%
Positive guidance and redirection (A6)	39% - 67%	50%
Staff facilitates cooperative, relaxed learning environment: Pleasant sounds such as laughter (A7) Staff assists children to be comfortable (A8) Staff fosters cooperative play and prosocial behavior (A9)	0% - 100%	75%

Much of the variability reported might be expected from the differences in age among the different classrooms. Observers randomly chose classrooms, which may have entailed their observance of three-year-old classroom one day and an eight-year-old classroom another. Establishing a consistent criterion to determine fostering independence might be especially difficult under this situation. Note, however, that the consistent average of about 50% reflected a general positive climate conducive to socioemotional growth that was consistent throughout all of the classrooms.

Finally, general accommodation of DAP principle is observed by the percentage of NAEYC centers available to students in the five ECDC classrooms shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Percentage of NAEYC-defined Developmentally Appropriate Learning Centers Present in 5 ECDC Classrooms and Teacher Self-Evaluation of Quality

Percentage of NAEYC-defined Appropriate Centers	Range Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms	Average Observed 5 ECDC Classrooms
Permanently available	47% - 80%	59%
Available on a rotating basis	67% - 93%	79%
Teacher-rated quality 1 (poor) – 5 (excellent)	3.7 – 4.1	3.3

Heterogeneously detailed learning centers are a hallmark of the DAP philosophy. Teachers can provide learning opportunities to students of differing abilities by allowing children to work at their own pace on tasks that match their cognitive levels.

General Summary and Conclusions

In summary, our empirical description of the developmentally appropriate practices observed in our sample of five classrooms stands as a powerful reminder of what is appropriate about developmentally appropriate practices. The results reveal that even within a setting specifically designed to facilitate developmentally appropriate education, there was substantial variation surrounding major themes and teaching strategies.

"What is appropriate" about any educational program is that positive learning opportunities that encourage cognitive and socioemotional growth are accessible. The results of this study provide relevant insights. First, a lack of understanding about the specific tools for promoting developmentally appropriate learning environments remains the major challenge for teacher preparation programs. In this respect, results of this study provide formative

feedback to the ECDC teachers as well as to the pre-service teachers currently involved in educational preparation at the university-based laboratory school. Exposure to this feedback is expected to foster self-reflective improvement (Lay-Dopyera & Dopyera, as cited in Bredekamp, 1987). Teachers might begin to pay more attention to their practices. Inter-classroom dialogue about specific teaching practices would further facilitate the growth of this reflection. The ultimate result would be conclusions about how and why some practices work and others do not. Reflecting while teaching helps early childhood professionals to internalize what they do and to explain what they do and why they do it.

Second, the results and very conduct of this study serve as an example to both professional and pre-service professionals of the value of action research in a classroom setting. In this respect, this project illustrates a most appropriate use of university laboratory school facilities to promote best practices for teachers, interns, university students, and faculty. University faculty directed their students to assist in data collection, a hands-on learning experience. Classroom teaching faculty were observed and received formative feedback regarding the proficiency with which they use developmentally appropriate teaching methods. School children received the benefit of an innovative and consistently evaluated teaching and learning environment.

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Unit II

FAMILY INVOLVEMENT

80

Chapter 5

The Literacy Connection

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Educators are constantly looking for the most effective way to teach students how to read and write. Every approach is explored — phonics, whole language, basal readers, and more. Strategy after strategy is tried and evaluated. These efforts are noble, useful, and important. They must come second, however, to another important element in helping children read: the influence of students' first teachers–parents. Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) and its on-campus lab school, the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC), recognized the role of parents in the education of children and established a project to improve students' chances of literacy success by helping parents improve their own literacy abilities. The ECDC serves children age three through grade three with 50% of the children from Spanish-dominant homes and 50% from English-dominant homes. Sixty-three percent of the children are in free or reduced lunch programs. The parent project, called The Literacy Connection, was established in January 2001. It is funded through a congressional appropriation. This chapter describes the program and reports the initial results of the parent education project.

The Role of Parents

The Literacy Connection project is based on research that underscores the importance of family attitudes, values, and practices in developing positive literacy development in children. (Mikulecky, 1998; Powell, 1997; Henderson, 1988; Sticht, 1995). Strickland (1998) found that most families are more than willing to make special efforts to improve the lives of their children. Families function as the first and most important educators of their children, they understand their role in providing positive learning environments, and they are willing to seek help in creating that positive learning environment at home. Parents with positive attitudes toward literacy model reading and writing activities and provide books for their children (Snow & Tabors, 1998). Seeing adults read for their own enjoyment conveys a powerful positive message to children about the value of reading (Neuman, Copple, & Bredekamp, 2001).

The Literacy Connection uses a parent involvement model of family literacy. Parent involvement programs work with parents to increase their abilities to support their children's literacy development (Tracey, 2001). These programs have a demonstrated positive effect

on student performance. Padak and Rashinski (1994) found that children who are the most successful in learning to read and write come from homes in which family literacy is part of family life. The specific parent-child interactions associated with children's literacy success include:

- Parental reading to and with children
- Complex language between parent and children
- Literacy modeling and support in the home (Mikulecky, 1998).

The Literacy Connection tutors show parents how to help their children through sharing books. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) recommends that parents and caregivers should read to children every day (Neuman et. al., 2001). Strickland and Taylor (1989) describe how reading aloud to children and sharing books with them support their literacy development in a variety of ways:

- The parent-child interaction takes place in an atmosphere of success.
- The activity involves spoken language in a child-centered atmosphere.
- Children acquire spoken language in a meaningful context.
- Children are presented with the whole system of language.

Their findings were consistent across ethnic and educational levels, parental background and socioeconomic levels, geography, and family configuration.

Because of the significant relationship between parents' literacy levels and interactions with their children, The Literacy Connection project was designed to provide literacy training to parents. Parents contribute to family literacy by developing their own literacy (Auerbach, 1989). Adults who receive literacy instruction will transfer their positive attitudes to their children (Sticht, 1995). This positive attitude toward literacy crosses cultural lines. Many Latino families cite a good education as one of the values that caused them to

immigrate to the United States. Many low-income families, as well, put a high value on education (Mikulecky, 1998).

Overview of The Literacy Connection Components

Framework of the Project

The Literacy Connection is a parent education project that provides one-to-one tutoring for parents with low literacy and/or low English language skills. The tutoring is provided by TAMUCC graduate assistants selected specifically for the project. The adult learners are parents of children attending the ECDC. Special emphasis is still placed on serving parents of three- and four-year-old students to provide the earliest intervention possible. Initial staff for the project included a university faculty member who served as the project coordinator and four graduate assistants in the College of Education.

The project involved several stages:

1. Promoting awareness of the project within the university, the Corpus Christi Independent School District, and the educational community outside the university
2. Recruiting parents who wanted to increase their literacy and English language skills and develop basic computer skills
3. Soliciting support for materials and incentives from community representatives
4. Conducting the tutoring sessions
5. Presenting a parent workshop
6. Recognizing the success of the parents
7. Evaluating the results.

Project Awareness and Recruitment

University faculty members were selected to serve as an advisory committee for The Literacy Connection project. Faculty and staff were also asked to help recruit graduate assistants by discussing the project in their graduate and upper level undergraduate classes. Additionally, graduate assistants were solicited through

announcements on electronic and physical campus bulletin boards. The project was also announced at meetings of the campus student reading council, the local reading council, a reading conference planning committee, research presentations, and school district faculty meetings. The project was described in university and school district publications and newsletters.

Four graduate assistants were selected for the project. Two graduate assistants were bilingual, one had moderate Spanish language skills, and one spoke only English. All of the graduate assistants enrolled in the TAMUCC course College and Adult Literacy.

Parent Recruitment

After the project staff was in place, outreach activities were initiated to inform parents of the project and to solicit their participation. The project staff, ECDC principal, and the ECDC parent liaison used a variety of approaches to inform parents of the opportunity to improve their literacy and English language skills:

- The title "Making Reading Fun" was given to the tutoring component of the project. The tutoring was presented as a 12-week course to help parents help themselves and their children. Parents were told that those completing the course would receive $100 in gift certificates from local businesses.
- The project director met with ECDC faculty to ask their assistance in encouraging parents to take advantage of the project.
- The project director addressed parents at the school literacy night and special school project meetings.
- An informational flyer in English and Spanish was sent home with ECDC students.
- The ECDC parent liaison sent out information messages in English and Spanish to every ECDC parent over the school's phonemaster system.
- An information article was printed in the school's newsletter.

- All ECDC parents were invited to an informational breakfast where the program was described and sign-up sheets were distributed. Bilingual graduate assistants answered questions from the parents.

As a result of the awareness and recruitment campaign, 17 parents signed up to participate in the program. Fifteen of the parents remained in the program for the full twelve weeks. All parents were honored at the end of the 12-week course at a recognition reception.

Community Support

The Literacy Connection staff contacted local businesses and commercial vendors for donations of money and materials for the project. Two local bookstores provided free children's books; representatives of commercial vendors donated instructional materials, children's books, and puppets; and the director of the campus Teacher Resource Center donated children's books that were no longer used in the center. The local Wal Mart donated $500 toward the purchase of gift certificates and a local grocery store provided refreshments for the project recognition reception. The children's books were offered to the adult learner to take home to their children at the end of each tutoring session. Representatives of all the community supporters were invited to the project recognition reception and received a certificate of appreciation.

Tutoring Sessions

The tutoring sessions were held in the building that housed the Early Childhood Development Center and were scheduled at the convenience of the adult learners. Some learners came early in the morning after they brought their children to school. Some came in the afternoon before ECDC classes were dismissed. Other learners came at night. Childcare was provided by paid undergraduate students. The childcare was free to parents.

The first tutoring sessions included a learner interview, individual reading assessment, and a computer awareness survey. Subsequent sessions were instructional in nature. A theme-based, learner-centered

approach to instruction governed the instructional program developed for the participants.

The content of each learner's sessions depended upon that learner's interest and needs. Each session included instruction in vocabulary, comprehension and survival reading skills. Each session ended with the modeling of a strategy the learner could use with children at home. Some sessions were videotaped so learners could evaluate their own performance on reading tasks, especially those they would share with their children.

Parent Workshop

The Literacy Connection sponsored a reading workshop that was open to all ECDC parents, university students, and the general public. The workshop featured a presentation on oral language and stories by the Dean of the College of Education of the university. Another university faculty member gave a presentation in Spanish and English about reading aloud to children. The presentation featured Spanish language children's books that reflected Latino heritage and culture.

Recognition Event

A reception was held at the end of the 12-week program to recognize learners, university and school district supporters, and community sponsors. Each student received a certificate of achievement, gift certificates for the local Wal Mart and bookstores, and a new children's book. University and school district supporters and community sponsors received certificates of appreciation.

Evaluation Model

The Logic Model of evaluation was selected by the outside evaluator of the congressional grant. Therefore, the objectives for The Literacy Connection were developed using that model. The results of the first semester of the project will be discussed according to the goals outlined in that model. The components of the Logic Model as they relate to The Literacy Connection are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
The Literacy Connection Logic Model

Components	Recruitment	Family Literacy	Research/ Publication
Activities	Work with ECDC school	Organize sessions Provide one-to-one tutoring	Collection information for reports and website. Assess improvements of participants over time.
Target Groups	ECDC faculty and staff ECDC parents	Parents of young children at the ECDC	Adult literacy educators
Short Term Outcomes	Increased awareness of the program Increased interest in the program	Increased basic literacy skills Increased basic computer skills Increased awareness of activities with children	Website creation
Long Term Outcomes	Increased participation in the program	Increased interest in reading and literacy	Completion of a research paper recording progress of the program

The Activities section of the model is outlined in greater detail in Table 2.

Table 2
The Literacy Connection Service Delivery Activities and Outcomes

I. Major Service Delivery Activities	II. Outcomes: The learner will….
One-to-one tutoring of parents Parent workshops	Apply word knowledge strategies to identify unknown words. Increase vocabulary Comprehend a variety of texts Obtain information needed for daily living from a variety of sources. Demonstrate basic writing skills
One-to-one tutoring of parents Modeling reading aloud to children Videotaping of parents reading to children for self-analysis Parent workshops	Select appropriate reading materials for children Read expressively to children Involve children in listening/reading experiences
One-to-one tutoring of parents Guidance/modeling of activities on computers	Reduce anxiety about using computers Develop computer vocabulary Use basic work processing skills Access and use instructional programs Access Internet sites

Analysis of The Literacy Connection Activities

Learner Population

Seventeen parents signed up for tutoring. Fifteen parents completed the 12-week program. The statistical breakdown of the learner population is shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Statistical Breakdown of The Literacy Connection Learners.

Characteristic	Number
Gender	
Female	11
Male	4
First language	
English	6
Spanish	9
Age	
0-25 years	1
26-35 years	10
36-45 years	4
46 and older	0
Age of children whose parents participated in the program	
0-1	4
2-3	5
4-5	8
6-7	5
8 or older	14

Number and Length of Tutoring Sessions

The number and length of the tutoring sessions varied by learner. Some learners attended one-hour sessions once a week. Other learners came once a week for 1 1/2- to 2-hour sessions. Several learners asked to attend sessions twice a week. The total number of tutoring sessions and hours are shown in Table 4. Ninety hours of childcare were provided during the tutoring sessions.

Table 4
Total Tutoring Sessions and Hours for Learners in The Literacy Connection

Measure	Number
Tutoring sessions	Total number of tutoring sessions
Reading	25
Computers	19
TOTAL	44
Tutoring hours	Total number of tutoring hours
Reading	167
Computers	28
TOTAL	195

Organization of Tutoring Sessions

The content of each tutoring session was dictated by the needs and interests of the adult learners. However, each reading session included direct instruction in vocabulary, comprehension, and survival reading skills. Each session ended with a modeling activity for parents to try with their children at home.

The content requested by parents included money-management skills, work-related reading, and improving communication between the parents and the school. One learner wanted to learn how to write checks. Another learner needed vocabulary related to school so she could understand communications she received from the school and she could write notes to her child's teacher. Another learner wanted to learn how to read maps and street names so he could become an independent driver who no longer relied on landmarks and visual cues when he traveled.

An important component of the reading tutoring sessions was the modeling of good read aloud practices for learners. Learners were videotaped reading a children's book aloud. They then watched the videotapes with their tutors and discussed ways to improve their reading. One mother read books quickly and in a monotone. When she observed herself on the tape, she commented, "That's really boring" (personal communication, March, 2001). Her tutor demonstrated how to read with expression. A second videotape of the same learner showed great improvement. Several learners were

videotaped reading to their own children. These tapes were used to help the learners evaluate their reading performance with their children.

Computer sessions were also provided on a one-to-one basis. Learners completed a computer awareness survey, the results of which were used to establish the starting point of their instruction. Learners were given guidance in manipulating computer hardware and software. Lessons began with basic instruction for turning the computer on and off, using a mouse, and using desktop icons. Some parents inputted their own writing into word processing programs. Later sessions involved the learners using the Internet to access information and locate sites that could be used by their children.

At the end of each tutoring session, learners selected children's books from The Literacy Connection collection. These books were taken home as gifts for their children. Many times, the tutor and learner selected a book during the session and practiced reading it aloud so the learner could later share the book with a child. One learner commented that her children greeted her on her return from tutoring with happy cries of "What books did you bring this time?" (personal communication, September, 2001) .

Evaluation of the Program

Learner satisfaction with the tutoring program was solicited through end-of-program interviews and surveys. All of the learners indicated that they were "satisfied" or "very satisfied" with their experience. Approximately one-third of the learners participated in computer lessons. All reported increased comfort with computer tasks. Success of a learner-centered program is defined by the satisfaction of the learners themselves. Each learner had specific personal goals for the instruction. One learner's confidence in her language increased so much that she volunteered to serve on a church committee, a goal she had held for many years. Another learner reported her satisfaction in being able to help her child with homework.

One significant measure of student satisfaction is retention rate. Eighty-six percent of the parents signed up for the second Literacy Connection program in the fall of 2001.

Conclusions

The effectiveness of the basic design of The Literacy Connection program is supported by learner responses on individual surveys and anecdotal evidence from learners. Most learners attended tutoring sessions consistently, even when obstacles such as car trouble or caregiver problems arose. The high retention rate for learners is indicative of their interest in continuing with the program. The second Literacy Connection program was offered in the fall of 2001. Enrollment in the program doubled, and additional graduate assistants had to be hired to provide tutoring.

Several elements of the program contributed to learner satisfaction and success. The Literacy Connection offered tutoring sessions at times convenient to the learners, free childcare was provided, and the lessons were learner-centered. Areas targeted for improvement in the second Literacy Connection program include improved record keeping, expanded instructional materials, and additional parent workshops.

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Chapter 6

Book Choices for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Parents: Strategies for Sharing Books in Bilingual Homes

Joanne L. Ratliff
Nicole S. Montague

Introduction

Learning to read and write is essential for all children's school success. The acquisition of literacy skills is particularly essential for second language learners from minority backgrounds as they grapple with an education provided in their second, and weakest, language. For majority group children learning a minority language as their second language, literacy can become the key to understanding a new language system. Although skills in literacy develop throughout a child's school career, the early years of literacy learning are uniquely important. Successive years in school provide increasing levels of learning dependent on literacy skills. If children don't develop a love for reading and associate pleasure in reading in their early years, they are less likely to elect literacy activities when given academic choices when they are older.

During the early years of school, parents are essential in helping children develop positive associations with literature. In dual language and language immersion programs, where both minority and majority group children are learning a second language, the literature choices parents make can send a clear message to children. It is a documented phenomenon that culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) families lose their original languages within the first few generations of arriving in the United States. How does this affect literacy growth in both languages for their children? When English speaking families include their children in immersion programs in order to foster second language learning for their children, how do their literacy practices in the home affect their children's language learning? This chapter examines the effect of parent literature choice on second language literacy learning for children involved in dual language and immersion programs.

Background

In dual language programs, both majority English language speakers and minority language speakers (for example those students who speak Spanish as their first language) are expected to use each of their languages in the classroom (Lessow-Hurley, 1996). Ideally, each language is used for oral and written communication because the dynamics of language production vary with each individual learner.

Dual language instruction differs from other bilingual teaching in several ways. Instruction in a dual language program always involves daily language experiences in each language (Meza-Zaragosa, 1998). Virtually every child is a minority speaker at some point during the instructional day. This presents teachable moments when teachers facilitate the creation of meaning for second language learners of both English and Spanish. When both languages are also valued in the home, children encounter greater success in language learning and less social hesitation in second language use (Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 2000.) This confidence becomes essential for children to find success in second language learning.

There is a difference between dual language and other bilingual education programs with respect to the social dynamics of language use and status. In transition and maintenance bilingual classrooms that do not use a dual language approach to instruction, the focus is on the language minority children who must strive to learn the majority language. With a dual language approach, the social and academic dynamics of language use involve both language majority and minority learners. With this program, children are expected to operate in both their strongest and their weakest language each day. In most dual language schools, the minority and majority speakers are grouped together so each linguistic group can benefit from the other's language. An immersion program is another form of enrichment bilingual education. The difference between dual language programs and immersion programs lies in their population. A dual language program should have 50% of the student population from each language group (Montague, 1997).

An immersion program, while following many of the same curriculum delivery strategies found in dual language programs, would effectively immerse English-speaking children in a curriculum that includes about 50% of the instruction in another language. This model usually occurs in the absence of a 50% representation of minority children in the program. In any bilingual program, students benefit from the validation of having their home culture and language enter the classroom (Ada & Smith, 1998; Bailey, 1998; Montague, 1997; Quintero, 1998).

In dual language and immersion programs, early literacy learning is essential to school success (Montague, 1998). It is important, too, that school programs are supported in children's homes. Parents have a major influence on early literacy development in young children

(Ada & Smith, 1998). Parents are the first educators of their children. What is valued in the home often translates to what is valued by the child. This includes the importance placed on reading and developing literacy as well as the value of each language in the home.

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were parents or grandparents of children enrolled in two dual language programs. The participants were surveyed at an evening meeting of a parent/teacher association. Both monolingual English-speaking parents and bilingual parents were involved in the study. The minority language spoken by parents was Spanish. The study took place in two elementary schools: Zavala Elementary (n=26) and the Early Childhood Development Center (n=16). Both schools are part of the Corpus Christi Independent School District. The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) is also a laboratory school situated on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC).

Procedures

Parents were asked individually to complete an oral survey with a university faculty member. Participants could respond in English or Spanish. Figure 1 presents a copy of the survey. After completing the questions, parents were asked to look at several books and choose which two they would like to read aloud to their child.

Figure 1 Parent survey

Book titles are listed in Figure 2. Three books had Spanish-only text; three had English-only text. Two books were available in both English and Spanish versions. After indicating their book choices, parents were able to choose a book to take home.

___ Mother ___ Father ___Grandparent ___ Other

Grade level of student(s) _____

How many languages do you speak?

___1 ___2 ___ Other

What are they? ___English ___ Spanish ___ Other

How many languages do you read and write?

___1 ___2 ___ Other

What are they?

___ English ___ Spanish ___ Other

What language do you use when you speak to your children?

___ English ___ Spanish ___ Other

How many hours a day does your child spend with you?

___ Hours

Do you read to your child?

___Yes ___No ___ Other (sometimes)

If yes:

How often? _____

How much time do you spend reading to your child? _____

What languages(s) do you read to your child in? _____

Figure 2 Books offered to parents

Dual language
- *Moon Rope* (Ehlert, 1992)
- *Clifford y los Ositos* (Bridwell, 1999)
- *Gathering the Sun* (Ada, 1997)

Spanish Only
- *Tomas y la Senora de la Biblioteca* (Mora, 1997)
- *Juguemos al Futbol* (Blackstone, 1999)
- *Alexander, Que Era Rico el Domingo Pasado* (Viorst, 1989)

English only
- *The Seven Chinese Brothers* (Mahy, 1990)
- *The Hat* (Brett, 1997)
- *Whistle for Willie* (Keats, 1964)

Spanish or English
- *Chato's Kitchen* (Soto & Guevara, 1995)
- *Chato y su Cena* (Soto & Guevara, 1997)
- *Goodnight Moon* (Brown, 1975)
- *Buenas Noches, Luna* (Brown, 1997)

Results

The results reflected differences in the two schools surveyed (See Figure 3). Though both schools strive to achieve a balanced population of 50% Spanish-dominant and 50% English-dominant families, Zavala Elementary draws students from more Spanish language families. The ECDC, on the other hand, is required to recruit from both groups. ECDC administrators have stated that it is slightly more difficult to find and recruit Spanish-speaking families because of the island location of the school and the need to transport all students to the school site.

The parents surveyed at Zavala Elementary were either bilingual or Spanish-monolingual speakers. The nature of the group may have been influenced by the fact that the study took place during a parent event conducted in Spanish. Surprisingly, however, nearly one-third (30%) of the books selected by this group were in English. These parents commented during the survey interviews that they do everything they can to learn English and to make sure their children learn English.

English is seen as the language of academic and economic success by these parents. They stated that their children could find

better jobs than they themselves had because the children would be bilingual. The parents strongly supported English language learning. The parents were proud of the bilingual program at the school, however, and valued preservation of their children's Spanish skills. When asked why they selected English language books, the parents explained that they planned to read the Spanish book to their children and let the children read the English book to them.

More parents at the ECDC selected English over Spanish books; 33% selected English and 14% selected Spanish. This finding may reflect the parents' confidence in being able to read a book in their native language to their children. Many of the parents surveyed were English-monolingual speakers. Several parents stated that they wished they could read a book in Spanish, but were unable to do so, even to their children. This choice may also reflect a security in language dominance of the dominant language in this society. Because these parents had enrolled their children in a dual language school, they clearly wanted to increase their children's abilities in two languages. However, many parents seemed to view Spanish instruction as being the responsibility of the school, not the home. During the brief interview sessions, English-speaking parents made comments such as "I wish I could read one of those to my kids, but there's no way" (personal communication, February, 2001).

Figure 3
Parent choices by school

Book title	Zavala Elementary	ECDC
Moon Rope	1	1
Clifford y los Ositos	8	4
Gathering the Sun	5	2
Tomas y la Senora de la Biblioteca	5	2
Juguemos al Football	5	1
Alexander, Que Era Rico el Domingo Pasado	2	2
The Seven Chinese Brothers	5	4
The Hat	9	6
Whistle for Willie	2	2
Chato's Kitchen	3	2
Chato y su Cena	1	2
Goodnight Moon	0	6
Buenas Noches, Luna	6	2

Limitations

Limitations to this study include the fact that parents elected to participate. In order to conduct the study, the researchers were limited to those parents who attended an evening meeting; this eliminated parents who might not be able to attend because of work schedules, transportation issues, and childcare needs. In addition, several parents chose not to participate as a result of time limitations and personal choice. The sample may reflect only parents who were highly involved in their children's literacy experiences. The offer of a free book in either language may have served as an incentive to otherwise rushed parents who wanted to secure books for their children. In several instances, children who were present prompted their parents and grandparents to participant in order to receive the free book. This may have limited the sample by including an overabundance of parents who allow their children to make choices.

Conclusions

Parent choice in the home literacy experience has an important impact on children's independent literacy choices. Many bilingual educators support the position that it is much easier to teach two languages to children whose parents place equal value on both languages. Such messages from home are picked up by even the youngest of children. Any quality dual language or immersion program includes literacy instruction in each language for all of the children enrolled. Such instruction is facilitated in the home by literacy choices made by children's first teachers: their parents.

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Unit III

LINGUISTIC LITERACY

Chapter 7

Assessment and Instruction of Phonics for Young Children: A Model for Collaborative Teaching and Learning

Merry Boggs

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Summer months offer release time for the exploration of innovative approaches to teaching. Educators at the Early Childhood Education Development Center (ECDC), the laboratory school at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC), used two summer sessions to develop a multilevel pedagogy renewal project that included interactions between graduate students, university faculty, and young children. The project focused on one literacy component – phonics.

The project involved three components: subject area focus, professional growth, and an organization model. The activities related to the project provided opportunities for teachers to refine their perspectives on phonics instruction.

Participating teachers started the project with an in-depth examination of phonics. At the end of the course, the teachers were in a better position to understand, describe and apply their understanding of effective phonics instruction in their classrooms.

The professional component concentrated on (a) promoting the habit of teacher reflections on important issues of literacy teaching and learning and (b) developing awareness of many perspectives that directly and indirectly affect public school teaching and learning.

The goal of the organizational component was to (a) develop positive learning environments without the normal constraints of public school rules and regulations and (b) create collaborative learning experiences that included all levels of students. This article describes the ECDC summer project, discusses each component, and shares the results of the project.

Components of the ECDC Pedagogy Renewal Project

Subject Area

Phonics was selected as the subject focus of the project through a collaborative process between Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD) curriculum supervisors and TAMUCC faculty. Phonics instruction is a topic that invites conflicting viewpoints (Dahl, Scharer, Lawson, & Grogan, 2001; Routman, 1996; Stahl, Duffy-Hester, & Dougherty-Stahl, 1998). However, teachers need to understand these controversial issues so they can articulate research-

based responses to the issues and translate research into effective curriculum and instructional practices for their students.

A TAMUCC faculty member and ECDC teachers worked cooperatively to develop two graduate courses: "Teaching Phonics to Young Children" and "Practicum Course: Teaching Phonics to Young Children." During the four preplanning meetings that took place in April and May 2001, the group decided to:

1. Examine phonics from multiple perspectives (whole language, systemic instruction of phonics, and child development research).
2. Translate phonics research into daily practice.
3. Find phonics assessment instruments appropriate for different aged children.
4. Explore the idea of developmentally appropriate phonics.

The common thread throughout these phonics courses was "How can we apply what we learned to our own teaching practice?" Final plans for the phonics courses were made during the first class session with all participants present.

Professional Component

There are many misconceptions about phonics. The major misunderstanding results from the reduction of reading instruction to a "phonics versus whole language" dichotomy. The whole language position promotes integrated phonics instruction within the literature program. Routman (1996) stated, "It would be irresponsible not to teach phonics" (p. 9). Stahl and Duffy-Hester (2001) claimed phonics misconceptions stem from the way people talk about reading, writing, and literacy. However, research has indicated that considerable time should be spent teaching explicit and comprehensive phonics skills to beginning readers (Beck & Juel, 1995; Grossen, 1997; Grossen & Carnine, 1990; Share & Stanovich, 1995; Williams, 1991). The goal of the TAMUCC phonics course was to have teachers study and interpret the research for themselves.

The two phonics courses were divided into three phases: (a) researching and studying phonics, (b) conducting individual investigations into phonics topics, and (c) applying new learning in the practicum course. The initial phase of the first course focused on

theory and research. In the next phase, graduate students studied an individual area of interest related to phonics, such as developmentally appropriate phonics, environmental print, spelling and phonics, writing and phonics, and phonics assessments. Finally, during the practicum course, graduate students applied their new understandings of phonics in an instructional program for ECDC students.

During the preplanning meetings, it became clear that the ECDC teachers have been intensively and singularly trained in direct phonics instruction with little time for thoughtful reflection. Additionally, their phonics training did not include a discussion of phonics integration within a balanced literacy program. Thus, the study of phonics focused on researching several competing positions. Through this in-depth study, the teachers hoped to articulate their own position statements regarding phonics and the role of phonics in the process of reading and writing.

In the second phase of the phonics courses, teachers developed inquiry projects. The results of the projects were shared with course colleagues. While TAMUCC faculty facilitated the inquiry phase, graduate students created their own investigative paths. Several teachers worked together and others worked on their own.

During the third phase of the phonics course, the group developed curriculum for the practicum course based on the ages of the students and the results of the graduate students' investigations. Teachers pre/post tested phonics mastery levels of ECDC students in the practicum. The results were then compared with the district pre/post results of the Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI). The TPRI is given in August and September to all kindergarten, first and second grade students in Texas public schools. Teachers in those grades are held accountable for their students' performance on the TPRI (Texas Education Agency, 2001).

The TPRI is a diagnostic test. A diagnostic test measures a student's performance in a specific skill area. Assessment, on the other hand, may be used to measure a student's progress towards mastery of a skill or concept (Rhodes and Shanklin, 1993). Assessment is often directly related to the teacher's instruction. In the practicum course, the group focused on a phonics assessment model. As reflective practitioners, they wanted quantitative and qualitative data to inform their emerging understanding of effective phonics instruction. Through assessing their students, the teachers collected data to support the hypotheses that developed during the first phase of

the project and were related to the way phonics works within a literacy program. Reflection and discussion alone do not drive effective instruction. They must be integrated with measures of student performance.

Organizational Component

Both the graduate course and the practicum were organized to meet the learning needs of the participants. The graduate course took shape through collaborative preplanning meetings and culminated with the meeting of the course classes. An important goal was to design the course so that it met the needs of the adult learners and created a positive learning environment. After many hours of probing and encouraging discussions, the group agreed that they needed:

1. Time for research and study
2. Time for reflections, both written and oral
3. Faculty directed activities.

Pedagogy and Curriculum Results

Measurements used in this project provided both qualitative and quantitative data. The findings are reported under the three components of the project.

Subject Area Results

The intensive study of phonics helped the group make sense of the controversial issues surrounding the topic. The major researchers studied included Adams (1990); Cunningham (2000); Groff, Lapp, and Flood (1998); Lyon (1998); Routman, (1996); and Stahl et. al. (1998). As the group read competing phonics perspectives, they discovered that researchers actually shared a common set of phonics beliefs:

1. Phonics should be taught.
2. Phonics is a necessary component of a literacy program.
3. Student's literacy needs should guide the approach to phonics instruction.

Additionally, the teachers began to see where these same researchers differed on phonics:

1. How, when, and where to teach phonics
2. Implicit versus explicit teaching of phonics
3. Teacher-led instruction versus student-driven instruction

The examination of competing phonics perspectives led to lively discussion among the course participants. They found themselves challenging previously incomplete ideas on phonics that they had heard in a variety of workshops and from many different administrators. Furthermore, participants began to develop their own positions on phonics and effective phonic instruction.

After spending time in discussion of theory, the group expanded their understanding of phonics through direct experiences with students' literacy learning. Teachers found that whereas some students need little phonics instruction, others needed explicit phonics instruction. Eventually, group members concluded that individual student literacy needs should drive one's approach to teaching phonics.

Professional Component Results

The professional component consisted of the phonics and practicum courses. The phonics course focused on creating a learning climate for adult learners. The practicum course involved implementing learning from the first course in an instructional setting with elementary-aged students.

Ultimately, the TAMUCC faculty member had control of the staff development phase of this program. She wanted to create an effective learning environment for participants, so she enlisted support from ECDC teachers to create a positive adult learning environment. The collaborative effort identified three necessary components of a successful staff development project:

1. Teachers needed time for professional, reflective discourse.
2. Teachers made sense of phonics based on their current grade level assignments.

3. Teachers needed a positive emotional climate for learning.

In this section, each of these points will be further discussed. Time became a double-edged sword. The group relished its time for professional discourse but simultaneously found time fleeting. Thoughtful reading and discussion took hours each day, but the results were amazing.

> " I want to be a better literacy teacher...I love to hear the comments and discussion from other teachers after reading articles" (Teacher A, personal communication, July 2001).
>
> "What a great idea to learn from each other" (Teacher B, personal communication, July 2001).
>
> I enjoy having time to read an article in class then having an immediate discussion on the subject matter. This is learning and making connections" (Teacher C, personal communication, July 2001).
>
> "I love having time to listen to other teachers' ideas and comments" (Teacher D, personal communication, July 2001).

At the end of every meeting time, teachers wrote in reflective journals. This provided an opportunity for communication between the teacher and the faculty member. The journals helped the faculty member make decisions about where to proceed next. Clearly, through the reflective journals and conversations, it was noted that teachers related new learning to their classroom experience. Each teacher came to scholarly discourse through her classroom. Adult learners are not different from children. They demand a positive learning climate for a positive learning experience. Participants shared, through conversations or journals, how their learning needs were met through the positive social environment. Participants were encouraged to share and support each other.

The practicum course evolved from each participant's understanding of phonics and the relationship of phonics to overall literacy. As the group prepared for the practicum course, teachers

were free to develop curriculum based on their interest and knowledge:

- Phonemic awareness through music
- Phonics through good literature
- Phonics through developmental appropriate activities
- Phonics through writing

It was agreed to assess all of the students within the first two days of the practicum course. Post-testing was planned but later abandoned because two weeks was not enough time to re-assess students' phonics knowledge. Instead it was decided to gather each student's results from the Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI) given within the first month of every school year.

The next section discusses students' results. Additionally, descriptive data was collected to demonstrate student success in the practicum course.

Organizational Component Results

Students entering First and Second Grade

A group of four teachers worked with fourteen students entering first and second grade. The teachers team-taught everything, discussing and sharing every day after the students left. These teachers completed a phonic awareness assessment of all first and second grade students. The phonic awareness assessment included the following sub-tests: rhyme task, oddity task, oral blending task, oral segmentation task, and phonemic manipulation task (Blevins, 1998). Only ten of the fourteen were assessed because some students did not attend assessment sections. The results of the assessment are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Student Assessment of Phonemic Awareness

	Rhyme	Oddity	Oral Blending	Oral Segmentation	Phonemic Manipulation
Students entering first grade					
Student A	12/12	8/12	11/12	21/24	5/12
Student B	12/12	12/12	11/12	22/24	11/12
Student C	12/12	7/12	12/12	22/24	10/12
Student D	12/12	10/12	12/12	18/24	6/12
Student E	12/12	12/12	11/12	23/24	10/12
Students entering second grade					
Student A	11/12	9/12	12/12	24/24	6/12
Student B	12/12	12/12	12/12	24/24	12/12
Student C	10/12	11/12	12/12	24/24	12/12
Student D	12/12	12/12	12/12	24/24	9/12
Student E	11/12	11/12	11/12	21/24	12/12

Teachers working with these students used daily music to promote phonemic awareness abilities, daily writing, and daily word building activities. Results from the TPRI are show in Table 2.

Table 2
TPRI results

Students	TPRI Reading Level
Students entering first grade	
Student A	Data NA
Student B	Data NA
Student C	Instructional at 1st
Student D	Independent at 1st
Student E	Frustration at 1st
Students entering second grade	
Student A	Data NA
Student B	Independent at 2nd
Student C	Instructional at 2nd
Student D	Frustrational at 2nd
Student E	Independent at 2nd

Students Entering Third Grade

Two teachers worked with students going into third grade beginning with the 2001 school year. Each took a different approach to assessment and to providing student curriculum and instruction. One teacher, Mrs. A., conducted running records and/or miscue analysis (Routman, 2000) to determine students' phonics strengths and weaknesses. In a running record, the student reads aloud from a passage of approximately one hundred words. The teacher checks off each word of the text that the student reads correctly and also notes the specific errors and self-corrections that the reader makes (Routman, 2000). In this case, Mrs. A used *Gruffalo*, (Donaldson, 1999) for the running record. Student performance results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Pre-Assessment: Running Record Results

Student	Second-grade Word Recognition Level Proficiency
Student A	73%
Student B	95%
Student C	98%
Student D	68% Discontinued frustrated

Mrs. A, who favored a strong literature program, selected the book *Gruffalo* (Donaldson, 1999) for students to read during the project. Realizing that students were on different levels, she prepared students to read this text successfully through building vocabulary knowledge and prior experiences. For the next two weeks, Mrs. A spend time reading, discussing, working on vocabulary, listening to *Gruffalo* on tape, writing, completing word building activities, and reading stories that had similar topics as *Gruffalo*. At the end, Mrs. A assessed students through the independent reading of *Gruffalo* to determine their success with the story. Results of the post assessment are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Post Assessment: Running Record Results

Student	Word recognition of the Gruffalo
Student A	90% (used expression)
Student B	95%
Student C	98% with great improvement on fluency
Student D	82% Frustrated, but with improvement

Mrs. B, the other third grade teacher, chose to give the Names Test (Cunningham, 1990; Duffelmeyer, Kruse, Merkley, & Fyfe,

1994) as a means to determine students' phonics knowledge. The results of the Names Test are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Names Test Results

Student	Names' Test Proficiency
Student A	50%
Student B	98%
Student C	90%
Student D	74%
Student E	95%

Based on these results, Mrs. B included "making big words" (Cunningham & Hall, 1994) as a component of her literacy instruction. Mrs. B organized her class as a travel group that visited different countries through children's' literature. Because the students were not re-tested at the end of the two-week period, there is no measurable data that shows student phonics knowledge improvement. However, the third grade teacher told the group that these students did well when they returned to school in the fall. Additionally, students enjoyed the "making big words" activity and looked forward to continuing with the activities.

Conclusions

This summer phonics project was successful in implementing a positive learning climate for adults and providing a collaborative learning opportunity for graduate students and university faculty. However, these results are short-term gains. Further data collection would be required to assess long-term gains and carryover to the teachers' classrooms. The graduate and undergraduate students clearly felt that the course work and practicum were invaluable to their learning. Even though the student achievement results are inconclusive, reports from parents and students indicate a positive experience with literacy and phonics. In addition, the Texas TPRI

showed that students started the new school year reading independently or instructionally at grade level, with the exception of one student who was still at frustration level. It is not possible to generate conclusions from such a small sample. Clearly, the group made a difference with the majority of students who participated. This research project could be a pilot study that leads to further in-depth investigations. Effective staff development programs take two to three years to establish lasting results and successful implementation; therefore, it is planned to continue refining this model. For the next summer project, TAMUCC and ECDC teachers will address vocabulary in young children and continue to reach more ECDC students.

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Chapter 8

America Reads + Reading Recovery + Right to Read = Quality Tutoring A Pilot Program

Jack Cassidy
Thomas Linton

In his State of the Union Address on January 20, 1997, President William J. Clinton announced that he intended to devote significant funds to hiring college work-study students to tutor primary children in reading (Clinton, 1997). Subsequently entitled America Reads, the program soon garnered much public support (Manzo, 1998). Funds were quickly allocated to colleges and universities to hire college students to work with children in grades one through three who were experiencing difficulty with reading. Institutions of higher education immediately implemented these programs. The topic "tutoring," long dormant in the professional literature, became a very "hot" issue (Cassidy & Cassidy, 1998; Cassidy & Wenrich, 1997). Research reports indicated that even with minimal training, tutors could significantly affect the reading achievement of at-risk first- and second-grade children (Fitzgerald, 2001). After a few years, the enthusiasm for the volunteer tutoring began to wane (Cassidy & Cassidy, 2000/2001); however, it is important to examine the results of the programs that emerged from the various initiatives to see if there are viable models for future tutoring programs which might use non-professionals.

When Clinton proposed his program, no funds were allocated for the training or supervision of tutors, nor were any monies made available for materials. Professionals in the field of reading immediately rushed to fill the void by publishing a variety of manuals and handbooks (Bader, 1998; Chall, Roswell, Fletcher, & Richmond, 1998; Morrow & Walker, 1997, Pinnell & Fountas, 1997; Roller, 1998). These handbooks offered prospective tutors a veritable smorgasbord of methods, worksheets, and assessments. None of these publications, however, offered a research-based model for the training and implementation of a tutor program that universities and tutors could follow. Often, the undergraduate tutors hired had little background and/or interest in education let alone reading education. It was unrealistic to expect that these undergraduate students would devote hours to reading these manuals and then selecting the appropriate strategies and materials. Articles in professional journals attempted to offer guidelines and synthesize research (Wasik, 1998 a & b). Inevitably, the America Reads tutoring programs came under fire from critics (Edmondson, 1998; Topping 1998).

Careful examination of the literature revealed, however, a good deal of information on successful tutoring. Cohen, Kulik, and Kulik (1982) did a meta-analysis of tutoring programs and found that they

varied widely in their effectiveness. Despite finding that math-tutoring programs were generally the most effective, they also identified features of successful tutoring programs for reading. They concluded that:

1. Highly prescribed tutoring programs are more effective than those with looser guidelines.
2. Programs that focus on word recognition and factual comprehension are more effective than those that stress higher-level comprehension skills.
3. Programs in which tutors provide hints of the correct answer and allow the children to come up with the answer are more effective than those in which the tutor supplies the correct answer.

Many of these components of successful tutoring programs are embodied in the world's most heralded tutoring program—Reading Recovery (Clay,1993). Developed in New Zealand in the seventies, Reading Recovery was brought to the United States in the mid-eighties. The program was designed for first-graders who were at-risk of reading failure and centered on prevention of reading problems, a focus now sanctioned by the widely cited government report *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998). Like previously successful tutoring programs in reading, the Reading Recovery program is highly prescribed, focuses on word recognition, and constantly calls on the student to solve his/her word recognition difficulties by monitoring comprehension. Unlike tutoring programs of the past, the tutors in Reading Recovery are highly trained and well compensated. The high price tag attached to Reading Recovery has caused some to question the overall cost-effectiveness of the program (Shanahan & Barr, 1995).

Government supported tutoring programs are not new. During the nineteen seventies, President Nixon launched the Right to Read program, supposedly to eliminate illiteracy in the United States by 1980. The Right to Read program ended in 1980; illiteracy did not. Unlike the America Reads program, the federal government allocated no funds for hiring tutors. School districts were directed to recruit community volunteers. Any federal money was spent on the development of materials. The Tutor's Manual developed for Right to

Read tutors (Robbins, 1972) listed sixty skills needed for successful readers and then gave a sample lesson for each skill.

Research Methodology

During the 1997-98 academic year, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) first applied and used America Reads monies. However, in the fall of 1998, the Early Childhood Development Center at TAMUCC began a pilot tutoring program which was based on the previous research, was funded with America Reads monies, incorporated aspects of Reading Recovery, and used some of the materials developed under the Right to Read program. Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi houses a public lab school for preschool and primary children in its Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC). The ECDC is a school in the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD). Students in the ECDC learn both English and Spanish and generally come from low-income families. The purpose of the America Reads program at the ECDC was to provide help for children experiencing reading difficulties (in English) and to develop a research-based model that might be used by other universities. During the 1998-1999 school year, efforts centered on piloting a model for training tutors and implementing the program. Although some data would be gathered on child performance, the major focus was to develop an efficient, effective, inexpensive model for training tutors and implementing an America Reads program.

Tutor Selection and Training

Tutors were selected from fulltime TAMUCC students eligible for work-study funds. Two TAMUCC reading professors and a graduate assistant interviewed prospective tutors. Initially, ten tutors were hired and this number remained fairly constant although some tutors had to be replaced in the spring semester because of their course requirements. All of the students were asked about their backgrounds with children and were asked to read expressively from a children's book. The major training session took place on a Saturday and focused on introducing tutors to the format of each tutoring session. (See Figure 1).

Figure 1
America Reads tutor training session

I.	Introduction	9:30 — 10:00
II.	First Day	10:00 —10:30
III.	Introduction to Schedule	10:30 —11:30
IV.	Skills/Strategies	1:30 —1:00
V.	Lunch	1:00 —1:30
VI.	Continued Reading	1:30 —2:00
VII.	Writing	2:00 —2:30
VIII.	Tutor Reading	2:30 —2:45
IX.	Questions	2:45 —3:00

Format for Tutoring Sessions

Tutoring sessions attempted to follow the guidelines suggested by Cohen, Kulik and Kulik (1982) and the format used in the Reading Recovery program. Because the Reading Recovery program uses thirty-minute sessions, this time frame was adopted. Unfortunately, due to various scheduling difficulties, tutors were usually able to meet with their children only three times a week. The Corpus Christi ISD made arrangements for a late bus on Tuesday and Thursday so several children were tutored after school on these two days. The particular format for the tutoring sessions was again borrowed from the Reading Recovery program (Clay, 1993) and then modified. The thirty-minute time frame was divided into six time segments:

1. Fluent writing practice (2 minutes). When the children came into the tutoring session, they were instructed to write as many words as they could on the board. Sometimes this procedure was modified. ("Write as many two syllable words as you can." "Write words that rhyme with cat." "Write as many words from your story as you can.")
2. Rereading familiar books, stories, or parts of stories (5 minutes). Children were then asked to reread familiar books or stories that they had read the day or week before. Sometimes they were given a choice as to the

stories they would read. Other times, the selection was assigned by the tutor. Research has shown that rereading familiar text builds sight vocabulary and fluency.

3. Skill lesson (6 minutes) The tutor then taught a specific skill lesson. The focus was often on word identification. The Tutor Manual (Robbins, 1972) developed for the Right to Read program was used to provide examples of specific skill activities.
4. Continued reading (6 minutes) In this segment of the lesson, tutors guided the children as they continued reading in a story or book. Tutors were cautioned to try to avoid supplying a child with an unknown word. Rather, the children were given clues so that they could ascertain the words themselves.
5. Writing (5 minutes) In this segment of the lesson, children wrote about something they had read or something that was of interest to them. Efforts were made to see that the children used the words in their writing that they were using in their reading. The cut-up sentence strategy used in the Reading Recovery program was employed here also.
6. Tutor reads (5 minutes). In this segment of the tutoring, the tutor read orally to the child a book of particular interest.

Although many of the components of the Reading Recovery program were used in this America Reads project, there were some differences. Because the tutors were not the highly trained professionals employed in Reading Recovery, some of the more difficult components of that program were not employed. There was no extensive record keeping, and the daily running records, essential to Reading Recovery, were eliminated. Tutors kept simple record sheets, which were stored in each child's folder and kept in a file cabinet. Although initial staff development was relatively brief, monthly meetings (later weekly) helped provide needed support for the tutors.

Tutors had a variety of materials available for them to use, including a number of easy to read books. Initially, many tutors used books from the Read-Reason-Write series (Cassidy, Cassidy, Garrett,

Behmer, & Micklos 1998). These student texts provided many of the tutors with the support that they needed.

On-going Tutor Support

Because the tutors were not highly trained, it was recognized that they required some on-going support. Thus, for one hour every Friday afternoon, tutors met with the graduate assistant (and sometimes the university professor in charge) to discuss problems and review strategies. At these meetings, tutors also provided feedback about the model used for the tutoring sessions.

Selection of Children

The first children selected to receive help from the America Reads tutors were nine (later ten) third-graders enrolled in the Early Childhood Development Center on the TAMUCC campus. The third grade teacher selected the children based on her assessment of their needs. All of the third graders had taken the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) in April of 1998 when they were completing second grade. Seven of the ten students had scored below the 33rd percentile using national norms on the reading subtest of the ITBS. Three of the ten children had scored above the 50th percentile (52nd, 65th, 69th percentiles), but the teacher felt that they were performing below their capacity (Corpus Chrisit Independent School District, 1998).

In February of 1999, America Reads tutors began working with five second-grade students, again upon the recommendation of the teacher. All five students had ITBS reading scores below the 50th percentile when they took the test at the end of first grade in April of 1998. In March, the tutors began working with five first-grade students, again upon the recommendation of the teacher.

Results

Because the primary purpose of this pilot study was to perfect the model for the tutoring sessions, student achievement was measured using the reading test required by the state testing program. All public schools in Texas are required to administer the Texas Assessment of

Academic Skills (TAAS) on an annual basis. The TAAS consists of criterion-referenced tests in reading, mathematics, and writing. The TAAS reading and mathematics tests are administered to all eligible public school students in grades three through eight and ten. The writing test is administered only at grades four, eight, and ten (Texas Education Agency, 1998).

The TAAS reading test is designed to measure essential reading objectives from a list of standards called the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS). The TEKS were developed by the Texas Education Agency to provide public school districts with guidelines for a state-required foundation curriculum in reading. Schools receive a rating of exemplary, recognized, acceptable, or low performing on the basis of TAAS results and attendance rates. In order for a school to receive an exemplary rating, at least 90% of the students must receive a passing score on the TAAS. In order to pass the test, students must achieve a standard score of 70, which is roughly equivalent to answering 70% of the items correctly (Texas Education Agency, 2000).

Because students in the study were in grade three, the third grade TAAS reading test was used to measure achievement. Data were collected for a two-year period in order to show student progress. Records indicate that all 18 students who were in the study in 1998-99 and 18 of the 19 students who were in the study in 1999-2000 passed the reading test. The student who did not pass the test in 1999-2000 was being tested for placement in special education at the time of testing and was later placed in special education. The fact that 36 of the 37 students who participated in the program passed the test is a clear indication that students in the study attained the reading skills measured by the TAAS. Because all of these students were judged to be "at-risk" either by their teachers or by existing informal assessments, the high pass rate for these thirty-seven is noteworthy (TEA, 2001).

Recommendations & Conclusions

1. Based on observations and input from everyone involved, it appears that the thirty minute tutoring session three times a week is the most effective. Many of the children, perhaps because of their reading problems, have difficulty focusing

their attention. It would be difficult for non-professional tutors to keep the children on task if the tutoring sessions were any longer.

2. The basic format for the tutoring sessions appears to be effective. However, some consideration should be given to condensing some of the six components or implementing them on an alternating schedule. For instance, the fluent writing component might be implemented only once a week. Also, some consideration should be given to slightly altering the format of the tutoring session based on the age and/or reading level of the child.
3. More staff development should be scheduled for the tutors. Particular attention should be paid to providing tutors with more strategies for the writing component of the tutoring model. Tutors reported a great deal of difficulty in getting children to write. Other topics for on-going staff development of the tutors would include: quick informal assessment strategies, means to select appropriate materials, and multi-sensory reading techniques.
4. Meetings should be scheduled with the first- through third-grade teachers to gain specific strategies that they would like reviewed by the tutors. Specific word lists and reading selections would also be helpful.
5. Formal observations should be made of the tutors at least twice a month. Following the observation, tutors should be given feedback on their performance.
6. In order to judge adequately the effectiveness of the tutoring model, a control group should be established.

Overall, it appears that the America Reads program, as implemented at the Early Childhood Development Center, was extremely successful during its first two years. All involved in the program report a great deal of satisfaction with the program, and the implementation model (with some modifications) appears to be one that could be adopted by other universities.

(Acknowledgements: Special thanks to the following individuals: Dr. Daniel Pearce, Chair of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, for his help in the interviewing and training of tutors, and for his ongoing support of the America Reads effort; Dr. William R.

McEachern, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, for his help in training and interviewing the tutors; Dr. Jane Wilhour, Director of the Early Childhood Development Center (1998-2000), for her ongoing support of the America Reads project; Dr. Christine Marroquin, ECDC School Administrator, for her help in scheduling and facilitating the tutoring sessions; Sonji Broomfield, Terri Davila, and Mari Cummings, teachers in the Early Childhood Development Center. Much of the credit for the successful implementation of the America Reads program must go to Mrs. Lynn Sansing, graduate assistant, Department of Curriculum and Instruction. Without her leadership abilities, intelligence, and diligence, the program would not have been successful).

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Unit IV

CULTURAL LITERACY

Chapter 9

Multicultural Literature: Broadening Young Children's Experiences

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JoAnn Canales

The 21st century brings a new and diverse group of learners into the public schools. By 2020, 50% of the students in our schools will be minorities (Webb, Metha, Jordan, 2000) and 85% of our nation's teachers will be white females, who differ from their students racially, culturally, and in social status (Banks, 1991a). Because schools are becoming much more culturally and linguistically diverse, educators need to learn more about the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of all students. They should strive to provide experiences in the classroom that closely mirror the cultural and linguistic environments of their students. Teale and Yokota (2000) contend that "children need to see themselves and others in our diverse society reflected in the selections read by the teacher" (p. 15). One method of providing diversity for both students and teachers is through literature, specifically a quality multicultural literature program.

Literature functions to "reaffirm the values, principles, and assumptions that structure and give meaning to a specific vision of the world" (Taxel, 1993, p. 10). A good piece of literature, in general, can alter and enhance one's view of the world, (Bieger, 1996) and multicultural literature, in particular, can offer rich and complex opportunities for reflection about diverse cultures (Fisher & Serns, 1998). As readers of multicultural literature, young children can become emotionally engaged through the development of character and plot and expand their contexts for understanding people and situations beyond their own lives (Laframboise & Griffith 1997; Tiedt, 1992).

In this chapter, we briefly discuss multicultural children's literature and criteria for selecting quality multicultural children's literature. We will also present an example of one school's commitment to selecting and using quality multicultural literature in the classroom environment.

What is Multicultural Literature?

There are various definitions for multicultural literature. Broadly defined, multicultural literature includes literature about people who are considered outside of the mainstream of society and have been in some manner marginalized. This definition would include people from diverse cultural, linguistic, socioeconomic, and religious backgrounds. In addition, it encompasses issues on gender, sexual orientation and disabilities (Yokoto, 2001). A more narrow definition of multicultural

literature focuses on people of color from diverse cultural, linguistic, and religious groups (Yokoto, 2001). For the purpose of this article, the latter definition of multicultural literature will be used.

While using multicultural literature in the classroom is an excellent method to introduce students to the diversity that surrounds them, it is necessary to select quality multicultural literature. There are several criteria to consider in selecting high quality multicultural children's literature.

Criteria for Selecting Multicultural Literature

In recent years there has been an increase in children's books written about culturally and linguistically diverse groups. This influx of new multicultural children's books has made finding culturally diverse books to use in the classroom much easier. However, not all of the multicultural children's books are of high caliber and caution should be used in selecting books for the classroom. Reddish (2000) recommends selecting books that are well written, high in "literary quality: plot, character development, setting, theme, and style" (p. 3). Furthermore, there is always the danger that books may contain literary characters or situations that perpetuate negative stereotypical images of culturally and linguistically diverse populations. It is necessary to select quality multicultural children's literature that provides accurate and authentic portrayals of cultural groups. In order to select high quality multicultural children's literature, the following criteria can be used to guide the selection process:

1. Characters should be *authentic*, not stereotyped.
2. Characters should be *balanced*—with regard to physical, social, and emotional attributes.
3. The setting should be *consistent* with either a historical or contemporary time frame.
4. The themes and values should be *consistent* with the specific culture depicted.
5. The illustrations, gender roles, and information about the culture should be *accurate*.
6. The selection should be *rich* in cultural details.
7. The selection should include an authentic *interaction* between characters with a cultural group or between two or more cultural groups.

8. There should be a *purpose* for including members of a "minority" group, not just to fill a quota of sorts.
9. The selection should *invite* reflection, critical analysis, and response.
10. The selection should *meet the generally accepted criteria of quality* for the particular genre in which it is written (Yokota, 1993).

Further criteria lie in Banks' (1991a) model for integrating multicultural content into the curriculum. His model identifies four levels of integration, including the Contributions Approach, the Additive Approach, the Transformational Approach, and the Social Action Approach.

At the lowest level of the model, the Contributions Approach, educators focus on the highlights, heroes, and holidays of a particular culture. For example, a teacher might read a biography of Martin Luther King, Jr. in January or Singer's (1980) *The Power of Light: Eight stories for Hanukkah* in December to note the contributions and traditions of African American and Jewish American cultures. In this approach, the traditional ethnocentric curriculum remains unchanged in its basic structure. This purely cosmetic approach provides teachers with a quick, non-threatening way to integrate the curriculum. It often reinforces stereotypes about minority groups while using safe, non-threatening heroes found acceptable to the mainstream.

At the next level, the Additive Approach, content, concepts, and themes that reflect other cultures are added to the curriculum without thoroughly integrating and connecting the cultural concepts throughout the curriculum. For example, a book such as Politi's (1976) *Three Stalks of Corn* may be the Hispanic addition to an elementary level unit about food or folktales. If students are given just a single exposure to such a book without spending valuable time discussing the substantive and/or controversial multicultural concepts, they are not cognitively or affectively prepared to understand what is being taught.

The third level is the Transformational Approach in which the structure of the curriculum is changed to provide students with the opportunity to view concepts, issues, events, and themes from the perspectives of different cultural groups. Using this approach, children might read and compare *The Matchlock Gun* (Edmonds, 1941) to Hickman's (1979) *The Valley of the Shadow*. The first book

contains stereotypical visions of unprovoked savagery and attacks on Anglo settlers whereas the second book portrays the true account of the massacre of peaceful Indians at the hands of whites. Thus, the goal of the transformational approach is to help students develop a critical awareness of, understanding of, and respect for multicultural concepts, events, and people.

The highest level of Bank's hierarchy is the Social Action Approach. Here, students identify social problems and concerns, make decisions, and take actions to help resolve the problems they have identified. Students begin to feel empowered to participate in social change because they have the knowledge and perspective to do so. After reading *Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* (Taylor, 1976), students might sponsor a "Freedom Day" to celebrate how far the nation has come and to accentuate how much remains to be done in terms of true freedom and equality for all citizens.

When multicultural literature becomes an integral part of the curriculum and teachers act as models and guides, classrooms can become areas for open exchange. Literature that is presented with a multicultural focus and the discussions that follow permit students to read, think, and become engaged with the text. As cultural development is a component of bilingual education programs, multicultural literature is an avenue to accomplish the goal of cultural development.

Teachers must first help students examine and identify with their own cultural backgrounds (Banks, 1991b). Some students are knowledgeable about their ethnic or cultural heritage, whereas others may identify so strongly with the mainstream culture that they neglect learning or discovering more about their own culture and often find themselves feeling as if they do not belong to either the mainstream or their own cultural group (Dietrich & Ralph, 1995).

An Example of Effectively Promoting Multicultural Literature in School

The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) was established on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) campus as a pre-kindergarten three-year-old to third grade dual

language school and as part of the Corpus Christi Independent School District in the 1995-96 school year. As a dual language school, the school adopted the 50/50 model of language delivery in the dual language program. Spanish and English are the languages of instruction in the school. The focus of the school is designed to address the economic, language, and cultural barriers that stand in the way of a solid education for many students. Each classroom has made a concerted effort to incorporate multicultural literature into the instructional day. Teachers at the ECDC are aware that in order to promote bilingual and multicultural education, students should be able to explore their own cultures and understand the contributions of other cultures.

Children's literature selections allow students to enjoy and replicate actual and vicarious life experiences of others right in the classroom. Storybooks act as "mirrors and windows on a global community" (Cox & Galdo, 1990, p. 582). Faltis (1989) summarizes the advantages of using storybooks for language minority students. First, storybooks are an excellent source for both vocabulary and concept development because the words tend to be presented in contexts supported with pictures and other types of extralinguistic clues. Second, storybooks provide a context for verbal interaction, particularly the important sequence of elicitation-response-evaluation. Third, storybooks teach children about attitudes and behaviors that are valued in society. Integrating what is taught around a literary selection of the week is beneficial for all children and particularly for non-English speaking children. This approach provides them with a common bond even if it is not in the child's home language. The book becomes a stimulus for academic and social interaction as well as a comprehensive connection for the week's learning experiences. The learning objectives of the curriculum are embedded in comprehensive input and the very real drama of the literary selection (Coonrod & Hughes, 1994).

At the ECDC, the faculty and administration, working collaboratively, have strived to provide multicultural literature in the individual classrooms and in the school library. In order for children to identify with the world around them, and to appreciate and value the differences and similarities of other people to themselves, it is important for them first to discover their own identities. When children enjoy books because they relate to characters, identify with situations, and understand personalities or behavior, they come to the

realization that there are others like themselves. Books can also help children solve problems by reading and seeing how situations and circumstances are handled by others. Books can also inspire children to pursue goals because someone like them did the same thing. Children must be able to find books that focus on their ethnic identities and backgrounds to develop the sense of self so important to growing up and to the appreciation of others and the world around them (Goldenberg, 1994).

Following the *Guidelines for Multilingual Materials Collection and Development and Library Services* (American Library Association, 1990), the ECDC has attempted to provide an effective, balanced, and substantial collection for each ethnic, cultural, or linguistic group in the school community. Because the school is a dual language school, the administration, with the guidance and support of the bilingual faculty, has worked to ensure that the collection represents materials that relate to the size of the group in the community. Student classroom and library books in Spanish are provided at the same level as the English materials. As recommended in the guidelines, materials are provided in the library in a variety of formats, including print, audio-visual, and computer software. A congressional appropriation grant facilitated an increase in the collections. Multilingual collections represent a cross-section of subjects, literary genres, and time periods. The library and classroom collections, representing authors from each particular national and linguistic group, contain works published both in the country of origin and in this country. Children's classics in both English and Spanish have also been added to the library collection. Reference materials in both languages are also available for student use.

Because Spanish is one of the languages of instruction, a major goal has been the addition of Latino literature to classroom and library collections. Latino and Hispanic literature can present strong images that can make Hispanic and Latin-American audiences feel admired and respected, while teaching non-Hispanic and non-Latin American audiences to appreciate these communities. Most importantly, these positive images can serve to remind all students of the universality of human life (Vandergrift & Agosto, 1995).

In selecting materials for the ECDC, the administration and faculty also tried to keep in mind the advice of Hispanic author, Gary Soto (2000) who stated:

1. Select books that show Hispanic women in contemporary roles.
2. Share biographies of Latinos so students understand Latinos' contributions to the U.S. and to the world.
3. Use picture books and novels as a way to inspire students to learn more about the history and culture of the Latino group depicted in the story.
4. Look for stories that use Spanish words and phrases- they provide realism and show respect for the culture.
5. Learn to pronounce the Spanish words correctly; many books include pronunciation guides to help you.

The focus on multicultural literature was also present in the selection of instructional materials. The *Cancionero* (2000) series published by Hampton Brown contains many stories related to Latino culture. The series is used in Grades 1, 2, and 3 for supplemental instruction. The *Pan y Canela* (2000) series of tradebooks is also used as support for the classroom libraries. In addition, in the kinder and pre-kinder classrooms, *Rimas y Risas* (2000) is used for Spanish instruction and *Dias y Dias de Poesia* (2000) is used for enrichment and instruction. Trade books written in Spanish and used for additional content reading materials have also been incorporated into classroom instruction.

All attempts to incorporate multicultural and linguistically different literature have been pursued by the administration, faculty, and university consultant faculty. With a dual language program in place, there must be multicultural materials available not only to help students develop languages to their full potential, but also to develop students who are proud of their own cultural heritage and are able to respect other cultures in the school and community.

Conclusion

Freire and Macedo (1987) assert that students need " first to learn to read their world and then to read the word." In a world that is becoming so culturally and linguistically diverse, how does one create such learning experiences without exposure to racial and ethnic minority reading materials and a teacher who can sensitively guide students in their discussion? This is an agenda important for all educators to consider.

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Chapter 10

Learning Through Drama

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Ruth Rechis
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Introduction

In the summer of 2000, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC) faculty from the Curriculum and Instruction, Teacher Education, and Drama departments met to create an integrated learning program for four-year-olds. The program was based on the philosophy: "Tell me and I may forget. Show me and I will remember. Involve me and I will understand" (Chinese Proverb).

The initial planning meetings led to teacher workshops during which project leaders exchanged ideas with the classroom teachers of the four-year-olds and explained the proposed goals of the program. The theme for the learning experience became *the garden. The garden* served, metaphorically and literally, as fertile ground for the three disciplines to interrelate, support and reinforce learning strategies. Drama instructors took the concepts involved in the literature and science topics that the students were learning during the mornings and tied them to experiences in the afternoon. Dance, improvisational storytelling, dramatic interactive games, and music were utilized as teaching tools.

The initial summer program was so successful (See Chapter 11) that it was replicated during the fall term. The program, "Learning Through Drama," was expanded to include the three-year-olds through the third graders at the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC). Despite the wider age range, the foundation of the program remained the same: teach children by encouraging movement, allow for creativity, and include as many senses as possible.

The Early Childhood Development Center

The Early Childhood Development Center on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christ (TAMUCC) is a lab school for three- to eight-year-olds. The four interrelated missions are to: conduct research, train teachers, provide model programs, and educate the children attending the school. The ECDC emphasizes a developmentally appropriate multi-cultural curriculum, instructional excellence, and team teaching. The major focal points of the ECDC include:

a. A dual language curriculum
b. Fulltime publicly-supported schooling for three- and four-year-olds
c. A school student population from low-income families, many of whom have English as their second language
d. State-of-the-art technology
e. A heavy emphasis on parent involvement and education
f. Collaborative research between lab schoolteachers and college of education faculty.

Background

Although the "Learning through Drama" program is new to the ECDC, teaching through an integrated curriculum is not. In 1985, Howard Gardner, in *Frames of Mind*, discussed his theory of multiple intelligences. He hypothesized that there are many ways in which students learn. Further, Gardner asserted that when everyone is treated the same, teachers are teaching to only one intelligence—usually linguistic. For the majority of the children in the population whose strengths lie in other intelligences, the linguistic model is not the most effective teaching approach. Gardner has defined eight intelligences: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist. Teaching to each of these intelligences assures that all the children in a class will be reached. The bodily-kinesthetic intelligence is at the heart of the "Learning Though Drama" program. Gardner (1997) defined the bodily kinesthetic intelligence as the capacity to use the whole body or parts of the body to solve problems, make something, or put on some kind of a production. The most apparent examples of individuals with this intelligence are people in athletics or performing arts, particularly dancing or acting. Use of this intelligence is especially effective with young children, who already know how to use their bodies. As Griss (1994) wrote, children do not have to be taught how to use nonverbal communication "...to jump for joy, to roll down a grassy hill, or to pound their bodies on the floor during a tantrum" (p.78). Children are accustomed to reacting to the world in a physical way when they first enter school; this ability can be used and expanded. Bodily-kinesthetic learning has a wide range of application in the classroom. It can facilitate:

a. Comprehension – Physical activity allows children to understand a concept through movement. For young children, who are egocentric, their bodies are the key way with which they are able to express themselves.

b. Multicultural Insights—Physical movement, such as dance, provides an effective way to explore the universality of cultures, as almost every culture uses some form of expressive movement in their arts.

c. Development of social skills—Trust, communication, cooperation, discipline, persistence, introspection, creative thinking, problem solving, observation and criticism are all part of a classroom that encourages creative movement (Griss 1994).

In addition to these educational benefits, physical movement in the classroom has a variety of physiological advantages for young children (Jensen, 2000):

a. Circulation–Movement creates an increase in heart rate and circulation increase, which leads to an increase in performance. A simple exercise such as stretching increases the cerebrospinal fluid flow to crucial areas, which causes more oxygen to go to the brain, relaxes eyestrain, and relieves muscoskeletal tensions.
b. Episodic Encoding (also called Motor Memory)—Movement gives children a new spatial reference on the room, creating spatial maps in the mind and providing more "unique learning addresses." This is especially important as children's brains change and grow.
c. Settling–Short periods of information need to be followed by time for the information to "settle in" for children to learn. The hippocampus in the brain organizes, sorts, and processes incoming information, and when this part of the brain becomes overloaded, no new learning can occur.
d. Chemical balances–Two natural substances, noradrenaline and dopamine, are produced by the body and increase children's energy levels.

e. Relief from sitting–Long periods of sitting can increase the risk of poor breathing, strained spinal column, stressed lower back nerves, poor eyesight, and overall body fatigue.
f. Implicit learning–This type of learning works by organizing the surrounding world, including immediate responses and reflex behaviors. Allowing children to take in knowledge through movement helps them to remember information more easily and effectively.

Young children are naturally interested in physical movement. Keeping them active helps them remember what they are learning.

Program Activities

During the school year, the "Learning Through Drama" program focused each week on one concept or skill that was part of the one grade's curriculum. The children, the classroom teacher, and a TAMUCC faculty member then explored the concept or skill through movement and drama. In these activities, everyone participated at the same time so that all the children were involved and active during the entire presentation. The activities brought the class together as a team, creating a close community in the classroom. Students were willing to try things in a large group that they might have been timid about trying individually. The activities included songs created by the class, improvisational drama, and other creative movement exercises. The following is a sampling of some of the activities in which the children participated. Some involved children in all six classrooms (three-year-old through third grade), and others involved children in only one or two grade levels.

Children's Literature

Chickens aren't the only ones (Heller, 1981)

This children's book explains that many animals, not just chickens, are born from eggs. First, the students read the book together in English and Spanish, switching back and forth between languages. Then, the students were asked what they remembered about the book. As a response, each student acted out one animal from the book. Each animal could be acted out only once. This activity

helped students become familiar with the many animals, including two mammals, which lay eggs. In the older grades, there were more follow-up activities with the book. For example, the students acted out the process of hatching eggs. All the students participated in a dramatic activity in which each student took on the role of a mother or father bird, an egg, part of a nest, or a cat. The whole group went through the process of the egg hatching, incorporating into the process details such as the strength of the nest, the use of feathers, the role of the baby bird's beak to hatch the egg, and the need for the parents to find food and fight off cats. The activity taught students about the life cycle of a bird. The children switched off parts in the activity so that everyone experienced different roles.

The Garden (Lobel, 1970)

This book is part of the Frog and Toad series. In the story, Toad tries, with little success, to get his garden to grow. Frog tells Toad that he should talk to his garden and then it will grow, which it does.

The children read the story together, and then discussed what it would take for a garden to grow—not talk, but air, light, water. In the older grades, students also discussed carbon dioxide, oxygen, germination and seeds that grow in water. Then, the students acted out the life cycle of the seed. They started out as seeds, and as they sucked through straws, they pretended to receive water, air, and sun and were able to "germinate into plants." They portrayed parts of the book, such as Toad talking to the plants. This activity enabled students to understand the requirements for plant growth. After reading both *Chickens Aren't the Only Ones* and *Garden Won't Grow,* students made the egg-seed connection and were able to see the relationship between the different species' life cycles.

Charlotte's Web (White, 1952)

Third graders attended a stage production of the classic E.B. White book *Charlotte's Web* at TAMUCC, and then did several follow-up activities. In one activity they made themselves appear as spiders, using their bodies to represent the two body parts and eight legs of the spider. They also learned about farm animals and their life cycles. In addition, they talked about friendship and the concept that differences between friends can be good.

Other literature

The students read other children's stories such as *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (Carle, 2000), and *The Three Little Pigs* (Galdone,1970). They first heard the stories read, often in English and Spanish, and then sang, acted, and talked about them. In some instances, they did follow-up activities that involved counting (e.g. the number of fruits the caterpillar eats, the number of pigs left). In other activities they would use American Sign Language to sign the words to a song about the story. In each activity, a selection of children's literature was used, followed by an extension from the story that involved active movement from the children.

Mime

Children were introduced to mime by first acting out, as a group, things that they already knew how to do, such as playing basketball. The students initially needed some coaching to become comfortable with the process. Once they were comfortable with mime, the students picked out an activity that they would like to learn as a follow-up activity. For example, as the children chanted a short tune, students individually mimed their chosen activities. At the end, the students wrote all the activities on the board to see how many they could remember.

Field Trips

Classes took field trips around the island on which Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi is situated to discover different indigenous animals and plants. Each group used a book to identify the types of plants and trees they saw. After the hike, the three-year-old students discussed the animals and plants they saw on the island. Then they created a song about all of the animals. They also acted out different animals and plants to demonstrate what they remembered.

Texas Public Schools Week

Texas Public Schools Weeks is a statewide event. In the CCISD, each school faculty determines what their school will do to teach

students about their state. The ECDC used a geography theme for part of its program. As a class, the third graders picked three places about which they wanted to learn. The class chose New York, the North Pole, and the desert. Three groups formed; each group studied one area. When the groups' activities were completed, the class went on a "World Tour" to each of the locations. Meanwhile, the second graders studied the state of Texas. They wrote a script about Texas and dramatized all the things they had learned about their home state. At the end, the world tour group decided that they were homesick and returned home to Texas, the location represented by the second graders.

Movies

Students watched the *Lion King* (Walt Disney Productions, 1995) and discussed animals that live in the jungle. They named the animals in both English and Spanish, then they danced to a song from the movie to improve their understanding of English and Spanish words for "fast" and "slow," "right" and "left," and the names of the animals.

Games and Activities

Math Game

The second and third graders played a math game in which each student pretended to be either a turkey or a chicken. In the game, each "turkey" weighed the same as three "chickens." The children set up a "scale" with their own bodies to measure the class full of "chickens" and "turkeys."

Spelling Words

Students in each grade acted out their spelling words; other children had to guess the words. The student who guessed the correct word wrote it on the board and then acted out another word. Each word was acted out only one time.

Bilingualism

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In a game called "Fruit Basket Turnover," each student pretended to be a certain type and color of fruit. Then, as instructions were given in Spanish, the students used their knowledge of Spanish colors and directions to change places along a circle.

The Water Cycle

During one showery day, the rain cycle became the targeted concept for a particularly rowdy group of students. Children choose the part of the rain cycle they wanted to be—a pond, an ocean, a lake, etc. Children with the most energy chose to be the ocean so they could crash around like waves. They then pretended that the sun had come out, and each child had to find seven other children with whom to link hands and form a cloud, after which they came crashing back to the ground as rain. The children laughed and crashed about, thoroughly enjoying the physical activity on this dreary day. In the midst of all this movement, one eight-year-old stopped and asked, "But how does the water really get into the air?" (personal communication, April, 2001). They all sat and thought about it and soon realized they knew the answer to the question. Because they had done the movements, they could take the next step of associating those movements with concrete concepts. The discussion after the activity, perhaps the most important component of this type of program, reinforced already known concepts and led to the learning of a new concept.

Conclusion

The children had similar experiences with many other activities—translating physical movement, songs, and games into more complex learning. They retained these ideas when they returned to their regular classrooms. Recognition of the gains made by the children was reflected in the glowing evaluations of the program completed by the teachers at the end of the school year. The teachers regarded the program as a tremendous success, both as an effective learning opportunity and as a community building experience.

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Unit V

SCIENTIFIC & TECHNOLOGICAL LITERACY

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Chapter 11

Nature Study: A Science Curriculum for Three and Four-Year-Olds

JoAnn Montes McDonald
Robert B. McDonald

Introduction

To many, the idea of designing a science curriculum for three- and four-year-olds may seem without merit. Distracted by personal and societal images of uncombed men in lab coats and spectacles, these individuals are perhaps deceived into believing that learning science is something only a "mature" mind can accomplish, and therefore, best left for the upper grades. In the worst examples of this type of thinking, we have observed primary and elementary schools that exclude the study of science altogether in order to focus on "the basics" of mathematics and reading. Typically, schools following this agenda serve high numbers of disadvantaged children and have a history of less-than-glowing scores on state mandated tests. If questioned regarding the practice, administrators at such schools will usually try to justify the exclusion of science by stating that children need to master the basic skills of reading and mathematics before they can attempt to master science concepts. In our opinion, arguments such as these arise from differing definitions and attitudes about what constitutes science rather than children's abilities to construct understanding involving science concepts. A lack of respect for children's ability to construct understanding from real-world experiences and an overemphasis on symbolic language systems also generally colors the perceptions of advocates of such practices.

But what is the solution to these and other problems surrounding the education of young children? If there is a need for science instruction during the pre-kindergarten years, what curriculum would be most appropriate? The following sections will discuss a curriculum model tested during a summer "discovery camp" for three- and four-year-olds at the Early Childhood Development Center on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. It is our hope that this article will illustrate some key components of what we believe to be a developmentally appropriate and need satisfying (Glasser, 1990) early childhood science curriculum model.

Program Description

The purpose of the summer discovery camp was to provide intensive integrated language experiences for pre-kindergarten students from culturally or linguistically different (CLD) and/or low

socioeconomic backgrounds. A three-pronged interdisciplinary instructional approach emphasized learning through exploration of the natural world, dramatic play, and literature. The children were selected from a pool of students who had completed a year in a public school pre-kindergarten program and demonstrated a need for supplemental readiness instruction prior to kindergarten. The majority of the children enrolled were of Mexican-American heritage. Teachers and students were housed at two local public elementary school campuses and were bused onto the university campus for the one-week discovery camp that was a component of a larger five-week summer school program. During the summer of 2000, a total of five groups of 80 to 100 pre-kindergartners attended the weeklong camps along with their classroom teachers (N=~400). Preservice teachers enrolled in a biology course and an early childhood course at the university were participant-observers and served as "helping hands" during the discovery camp. Prior to the beginning of the program, university faculty, program administrators, and pre-kindergarten teachers met to explore and discuss the philosophy and nature of the curriculum for the discovery camp.

The Curriculum

Objectives

Perhaps the logical place to begin the quest for a developmentally appropriate early childhood science curriculum is with a discussion of objectives. Objectives define what one is seeking to accomplish by exposing young minds to a course of study. Is the primary objective to teach some collection of factoids, words, skills, or processes? Perhaps the objectives are more focused upon affective outcomes such as teaching desired attitudes or fostering the development of a certain predisposition in the learners. The question of what to include in a curriculum is both ancient and perplexing. In practice, most commercial curriculum writers attempt to "cover their bases" and include objectives and content related to both the cognitive and affective dimensions of learning. While we endeavored to include materials, strategies and experiences to stimulate both cognitive and affective outcomes in our design, we went a bit further and attempted to include culturally relevant and developmentally appropriate

materials as well. By using common local objects and organisms as a focus of lesson design, we hoped to include content and activities that were likely to be repeated and enhanced through the day-to-day experiences of the learners. This attempt to forge important connections between the learners' daily lives and the content illustrates our belief that, although the early childhood science curriculum should probably include certain key concepts and skills, attitudes and other psychosocial constructs are of at least equal importance in the development of young explorers. Liberty Hyde Bailey (1909) alluded to this important affective component in science learning with the following comments:

> At first the interest in nature is an affair of the heart, and this attitude should never be stifled, much less eliminated. When the interest passes from the heart to the head, nature-love has given way to science. Fortunately, it can always remain an affair also of the heart, but the dry teaching of facts alone tends to divorce the two. When we begin the training of the youth by the teaching of a science we are inverting the natural order. A rigidly graded and systematic body of facts kills nature study; examinations bury it (pp. 60-61).

Howard Gardner (1995) has further developed this notion of children as naturally curious and self-directed seekers of understanding in his identification of a basic "class" of intelligence he calls "the naturalist." For Gardner, there are many ways for a child to be "smart," and the naturalist intelligence is but one component in the overall human intellect (Checkley, 1997). As with other intelligences (e.g., mathematical or linguistic), Gardner theorizes that different individuals possess different levels of ability and skills as naturalists. According to Gardner (1995):

> "The intelligence of the naturalist involves the ability to recognize important distinctions in the natural world (among flora, fauna). It can also be applied to man-made objects in our consumer society (cars, sneakers). Obviously, this skill is crucial in hunting and farming cultures, and it is at a premium among biologists and

> others who work with nature in our own society. I first became aware of this intelligence when I realized that I could account for the abilities of many scientists, but not those of a Charles Darwin or an E.O. Wilson" (1996, 202).

Young children are naturally curious. By exploring and interacting with the world around them, three- and four-year-olds discover information about their environment. These personal experiences with nature influence their development of ideas about the natural world. Children construct "stories" or maps that represent their personal experiences and/or understandings about nature (Wilson, 1996). In our opinion, a primary consideration in developing early childhood science curriculum is creating a program of study that nurtures the young child's innate abilities (including their abilities as "naturalists") and connects to their personal experiences, but does not impose adult frameworks and motivations on young learners. In this spirit, much initial planning and consideration of the prior knowledge possessed by young children regarding the natural world is necessary in designing curriculum to meet the needs of young learners. With these considerations in mind, we set out to develop a meaningful early childhood science curriculum.

Content

Perhaps no other single topic has generated more debate in educational circles than the perplexing dilemma of "what knowledge is most worth knowing?" Since humans first began to recognize the importance of formal schooling, pedagogues and philosophers have repeatedly identified, embraced, and then abandoned content frameworks designed to provide a generic set of knowledge and skills that "all students need to know" to master various bodies of content. Generally, these collections of ideas have been organized into "conceptual frameworks" that supposedly follow the "logic of the discipline." Importantly, this practice has continued to this day.

Because much of a child's early experiences with nature occur around the home, we initially selected "science in the backyard" as our guiding theme. We quickly realized that even this well-defined topic was too broad for a summer program of short duration. When a

colleague in theater arts suggested that "the garden" might be a more appropriate theme for a short summer experience, we enthusiastically agreed.

One final consideration in designing a curriculum for the summer discovery camp was the issue of relevance. Schollum and Osborne (1985) postulated that the relevance of what children do in school settings, to everyday events and to existing ideas, was of primary concern to the teaching and learning of science. In order for experiences to be relevant, they should relate to the world outside the classroom in ways that help children develop an understanding of that world and to make sense of it in new ways. With these and other lofty thoughts guiding our efforts, we boldly set out to design a developmentally appropriate science curriculum for four-year-olds.

To begin the process of identifying appropriate content for our early childhood science curriculum, we consulted several contemporary sets of "standards" for elementary science programs, including the *Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills* (TEKS) and the related (but far from identical), *Academic Standards* of our local school district (Texas Education Agency, 2001; Corpus Christi Independent School District, 2000). Using these documents as references, we began to try to identify key concepts and skills that could be taught in a short period of time and were relevant to our student population. We found that four basic inquiry process skills emerged as key elements of the standards for early childhood science education: a) observing–using the four senses, b) classifying–sorting objects, organisms, or events, c) quantifying–comparing, counting and measuring, and d) communicating–sharing findings. It should be noted, that these process skills are interdisciplinary, cutting across curricular areas. The same four process skills key to science learning are prerequisites to reading and mathematics. Indeed they are the basic tools children have used since birth to explore and make sense of the world around them.

In addition to process, the standards contained a substantial amount of material relating to biological concepts such as distinguishing between living and nonliving objects, the basic needs of all living things, and characteristics and parts of living organisms. Taking into consideration the process and content emphasized in the standards and the need to connect to the learner's real world experiences, it was ultimately decided that we would focus on our

local environment. That established, we began to identify natural phenomena that most four-year-olds would be likely to have experience with in their personal environments.

Scope and Sequence

One of the challenges facing the prospective designer of curriculum for young learners involves the conceptual sequence in which the content is to be presented. The writer is confronted with the problem of deciding, "what comes first?" In traditional curriculum design, the curriculum writer often relies on various established guidelines in order to sequence learning experiences. This process involves using traditional outlines such as textbooks to organize experiences designed to teach content knowledge. Another method of structuring learning experiences uses the writer's "reconstructions" of personal learning experiences as a template with which to understand, and make predictions concerning, the behavior of all learners. Clearly, the use of this strategy poses a number of problems, including the obvious potential for mismatch between the curriculum writer and the learners in a particular classroom. With these shortcomings in mind, we began to contemplate appropriate content for a lesson on gardens. First, we brainstormed ideas concerning what concepts are important in designing a gardening unit for very young children? What kinds of concepts should be included?

Soil

We decided that the program would begin with one day of soil exploration. Intuitively (and incorrectly), we initially assumed that most, if not all, children would have generated considerable understanding regarding "dirt." We believed this because both of us had spent considerable time playing in the dirt as children. We also had prior knowledge of our own daughter's early years, and these included substantial experiences making "mud pies" and sand castles, and engaging in other activities involving soil. In our experience, young children enjoy holding, squeezing, and shaping soil. By capitalizing on children's interest in soil, we hoped to focus their attention on the following questions:

What is soil made of?
What are the living and nonliving components?
How can components of soil be separated?
How is soil important?
Do seeds need soil in order to grow?

Large tubs of a variety of soils were placed in classrooms along with a variety of strainers, sifters, sieves, scoops, trowels, spoons, bowls, and trays. Children were encouraged to find out what soil was made of and to sort the materials they found onto trays. Teachers asked students to identify what they found in soil and decide if it was living or nonliving. Children used magnifying glasses to further examine the soil and the small living organisms found in the soil samples. Their discoveries were recorded in pictures and words on large charts used to facilitate further discussions of soil. During story time, books on soil were read aloud and children talked further about their soil experiences.

Seeds

Days two and three focused on the study of seeds. Seeds provide a perfect spring board to explore numbers, color, shape, size, taste, texture, and patterns. We viewed seeds as culturally important because children's first experiences with seeds are often through the foods they eat. Most four-year-olds know that many of the fruits and vegetables they eat contain seeds. However, we also assumed that many children could identify the names of foods that they didn't realize were seeds (e.g. peanuts, corn, and beans). We wanted to capitalize on and enhance the children's prior knowledge of seeds by posing the following questions:

How are seeds alike? How are they different?
How many ways can seeds be sorted?
Where do seeds come from?
What sounds do seeds make when shaken in a container?
How many seeds are in particular fruits or vegetables?
What do they look like?
Which seed do you like to eat best?

Children dissected a variety of fruits and vegetables and collected the seeds. They counted the seeds and glued them onto cards. The teachers helped them create a chart to display their discoveries. The students also had a seed-tasting party in order to identify their favorite seed to eat and graphed their results. By gluing seeds on popsicle sticks, children created original patterns and had opportunities to count. They created musical instruments by placing a variety of different seeds into containers made of various materials. During dramatic play, the students used their instruments to simulate the sounds of rain and thunder as well as to move rhythmically to the sounds they created. Finally, children had the opportunity to plant seeds in soil and put them in small baggies with moistened cotton balls to create living plant necklaces. A variety of picture books on seed topics were available for the students to "read" independently and teachers utilized these books during read aloud and shared reading time.

Leaves

Plant parts, specifically leaves, were the focus for day four of the discovery camp. We believe that plants are an integral part of every human's experiences. Humans use plants for food, shelter, and clothing. Plants are found just about everywhere, even in urban environments. For these reasons, we felt that plants were an important component of this unit of study. Questions to guide the leaf explorations included:

What are leaves?
Where do leaves come from?
How do we use leaves?
How are leaves alike? How are they different?

As soon as children arrived on day four, teachers announced that the class was going on a leaf scavenger hunt. A short discussion of the rules of collecting plants (e.g. Don't pull up the entire plant.) and a safety warning (Some plants are poisonous. Don't put leaves in your mouth.) ensued. Children received paper sacks in which to collect leaves that caught their fancy. University students and teachers guided

the scavenger hunts to appropriate areas of the campus for collecting leaves.

Once back in the classroom, children went to one of three leaf centers. One group gathered in a circle to share their collections with one another. Questions were used to encourage students to communicate their observations. Some questions included:

Which is your favorite leaf?
Why?
What does your leaf feel like?
What is the shape of your leaf?

Another group of children used the leaves they collected to make leaf rubbings and presses, while others sorted their leaves by shape onto a large sorting chart. All the while, teachers encouraged children to discuss their thinking and share their ideas with one another. Finally, the class had a leaf relay in which each child ran down to a large container of leaves looking for one to match the leaf they already had in hand. Children enjoyed the game immensely and insisted on running the relay over and over, changing their leaves each time.

Discovering insects, spiders, and crustaceans

Although the study of insects, spiders, and crustaceans was formalized on day five of the discovery camp, it really began on day one when students discovered the many small living organisms hiding in the soil they explored. The excitement and interest generated when a small eye detected a shy earwig or rolly poly scurrying beneath a decomposing leaf validated our inclusion of this topic for exploration. Because insects make up the majority of living organisms in the natural world, young children have many opportunities to observe and study them. Because of limited time, we focused on three organisms: crickets, spiders, and rolly pollys. These organisms seemed particularly appropriate because they are common visitors to the garden, and many four-year-olds have already herded a rolly poly or listened to the chirping of crickets prior to coming to school. In order to guide students' observations, we posed the following questions:

What kinds of things might we find living among the plants in the garden?
What kinds of living things did we find in soil?
What do crickets (rolly pollys or spiders) eat?
Where do crickets (rolly pollys or spiders) live?
How are crickets and spiders different? Alike?

Earlier in the week, several somewhat large tunnel spiders were captured from the soil samples and placed in clear plastic habitats along with soil, leaves, and small sticks. Much to the delight of the children, these enterprising weavers quickly constructed silk tunnels connecting their burrows underground to the surface of the leaves. Each day the children eagerly ran to the containers to see if the spiders were perched near their tunnels waiting for an unsuspecting insect to happen by. On day five, large clear plastic tanks filled with crickets and rolly pollys were placed on tables along with hand lenses, drawing materials, and clay. Children were divided into three groups for learning centers. Each group had the opportunity to observe closely the living organisms and participate in a discussion of their characteristics. Then they were asked to make a model from clay or to draw a picture representing the organism of their choice. In addition, students conducted simple investigations to find out what environmental conditions the organisms preferred. They placed different items of their own choosing such as grass, soil, a wet sponge, or a rock into the tank to see where the organisms would congregate.

In another center, we introduced the children to a large tarantula using a video microscope that projected an enlarged image of the spider onto a television monitor. With the spider displayed on the screen, a university biology professor talked with the youngsters about the anatomy, characteristics and habits of spiders. Scientific language was introduced to describe the body parts of the spider. Children were encouraged to compare the spider's body parts to their own anatomy and to use the new science terms that had been introduced (e.g., abdomen). They could approach the television monitor and point out or identify body parts as well as ask questions about the spider's anatomy. It also gave them an opportunity to compare the tarantula to the smaller tunnel spider they had been observing all week.

At other stations, teachers placed a wide assortment of picture books dealing with insects and spiders onto tables for children to

explore. Many of the teachers chose Eric Carle's *The Very Quiet Cricket* (2000) or *The Very Busy Spider* (2000) for the day's shared reading activity. Finally, the children sang "There was an Old Woman Who Swallowed a Spider" and acted out the animal parts.

Assessment

Because the intent of the summer discovery camp was to provide the students with rich experiences with the natural world and to develop their language skills, and not necessarily to teach facts or content, no attempt at formal science knowledge assessment was planned. However, we used several nice informal performance assessments during the summer program to help us monitor students' construction of understanding. These included sorting and graphing information, building models of spiders and insects, acting out the sprouting of seeds, using tools, and classifying living, non-living and once living objects. Finally, a survey of teachers was conducted to find out how they felt about the curriculum used in the summer discovery program and how well it served their needs.

Data Collection

In addition to our roles as facilitators of the discovery camp, we also acted as "participant observers" (Patton, 1990), collecting and triangulating qualitative data in a variety of ways, including direct observation and recording of anecdotal evidence; informal interviews with children, teachers, and university students; video-tape of teachers and students working together, and written field notes collected by university student helpers.

University students working in the classrooms acted as participant observers recording their observations of the four-year-old students' responses to the explorations. Prior to entering the classrooms, the preservice teachers and their biology professor discussed the guiding questions framing each day's investigations. These discussions served as advance organizers for categories of data collection. For example, on day one, university student helpers were prompted to ask soil related questions and to note the responses to the questions as well as the behaviors exhibited by the four-year-olds. After each observation, university students compiled their field notes and turned them in to the

professor. These data points were particularly rich because they not only provided insights into the responses and behaviors of the four-year-old students, but reflected the learning and concerns of the preservice teachers as well.

What We Learned

Reflections on the Program

At the conclusion of the five-week program, we felt that the experiences and skills we identified as key components of the program proved to be appropriate. We also realized that some of our initial assumptions about the prior experiences common to four-year-olds were heavily colored by our own prior knowledge. For example, we chose topics and objects that we assumed the young learners had probably already encountered in their real world experiences. Although many of the young children shared personal stories about their experiences with soil, plants, insects, and other natural materials, this was not the case for all students. We also observed that some children came to the program with reservations about interacting with some of the natural materials or living organisms we provided. When we introduced the students to soil, a few students commented that soil was dirty and they didn't want to touch it. They seemed frightened of what they might find. They were persuaded to join in the soil explorations only when they observed their peers gleefully sifting leaves, roots, sticks, and worms from the dirt. While not all children had positive prior experiences with the topics presented in the garden unit, it seemed that they all were naturally curious about the objects, organisms, and events explored. When children either lacked experience or had negative prior experiences, they seemed to hold back and watch other children interact with the objects or organisms before deciding to join in the explorations. They often chose to sit or stand near other children and carefully observe them, participating vicariously through their peers. However, we also noted that there was not a single child who didn't voluntarily join in the activities by the end of each day. These findings strengthen our belief that learning is a social activity (Vygotsky, 1978).

One of the strengths of the summer discovery program was the participants' development of language. Children often delighted in the

new words they encountered during interactions with teachers and other adults. It was common for the children to repeat a new word numerous times, stretching out the sounds as if they enjoyed the way the words rolled off their tongues. The word "bamboo," for example, became "bamboooo." Importantly, much of the new vocabulary was internalized and children were able to use it during independent conversations without prompting from the teachers.

As children constructed understanding from their experiences with the natural world, they often lacked the appropriate labels for objects or organisms. This lack of vocabulary did not limit their ability to describe their observations. For example, when one young boy spied an earwig disappearing into the soil, he called out, "Look a pincher bug!" This child generated a word to describe the earwig, an odd-looking insect with small pincers extending from its abdomen, based on a single critical attribute. This ability of young children to invent language to describe objects, events, or organisms was observed in previous research (McDonald, 1993). As students needed to communicate with others, they often invented descriptive terms or labels to convey meaning. In order to invent these terms, the students first observed the organism or object, categorizing the new phenomena based on some prior knowledge of the natural world. In the case of the "pincher" bug, the young boy explained that he thought the pincer like appendages at the end of the abdomen-resembled pincers of a crab. Because the child understood that animals with pincers could pinch, he adopted the name of an attribute to help describe an unknown organism with a similar anatomical feature.

One final finding of interest concerns the emergence of children's schema regarding soil/plant/insect interactions. Although, most of the preschool children lacked a clear understanding of the exact nature of the important interactions between soil, plants, and insects, they were beginning to develop a sense of "connectedness" among the three. When asked what soil is made of, the four-year-olds most often replied that it is made of seeds, plants/leaves, worms, or insects. Because children often find plant or animal parts in soil, they may have drawn the conclusion that soil originates from such sources. Alternatively, perhaps the children had assumed that plants, seeds, insects, etc. are produced by soil! This notion of spontaneous generation of life from soil has had its proponents, including respected thinkers such as Aristotle.

In addition, the students had begun to develop schemas regarding plant and soil relationships. When asked about the importance of soil, the four-year-olds often described plant and soil interactions. The following student comments reflect the children's growing awareness of these ecological principles (personal communication, July 2000):

> "Dirt is good because it grows things like plants.
> Soil helps plants because that is where they put their roots so they can hold onto the ground.
> Plants stick their roots into the ground and suck up all the water and food.
> Dirt is important because bugs live in it and plants grow in it".

Regarding Preservice Teachers

While our primary interest was in evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum, other important trends emerged from the notes and observations of the preservice teachers helping in the classrooms. All of the university students appeared to be positively impacted by their participation in the discovery camp. They enjoyed interacting with the four-year-old students as they got the opportunity to try out instructional approaches and strategies that they had learned about in university classes. Moreover, the preservice teachers expressed an excitement for teaching science. The following comments are typical of those made by preservice teachers in field notes or during informal conversations:

> The [four-year-old] students really enjoyed these activities. I also enjoyed seeing the students so excited about science. I hope to use these activities in my future classroom. I hope I can make science meaningful and exciting for my future students. (Judy, personal communication, June 19, 2000)

> Thanks again for letting me experiment with the kids and showing me what to expect in the classroom. The kids are the best explorers to hang around with. (Diana, personal communication, June 27, 2000)

> The children can't wait for us to come back. It was a lot of fun working with the children. More interaction with children during university classes is needed when someone is going into the field of education. It gives us a chance to try out methods and activities to see what works.
> (Diana, personal communication, June 19, 2000)

> I had the opportunity to teach and talk to a small group of children during the activity. I really enjoyed this, as it gave me a chance to practice teaching before I have to student-teach.
> (Tina, personal communication, June 26, 2000)

Preservice teachers also valued the opportunity to watch young children as they constructed knowledge. Many of the preservice teachers expressed surprise at the amount of prior knowledge the four-year-olds demonstrated during their science investigations. The following statement was typical:

> I thoroughly enjoyed this program and working with the young children. It is incredible the knowledge that each one brings to class. I couldn't believe the words they already knew...like sprout and roots. I am anxious to return to this class and observe the students and their seed plantings. Working with these young children stirred in me the excitement of teaching science and the incredible force of curiosity.
> (Martha, personal communication, June 19, 2000)

One university student noted that working in the discovery camp validated her choice of teaching as a career:

> I believe that the students were very excited and that they learned a lot from our discussion about dirt, as I did. This just confirms the fact that I want to be a teacher, and I cannot wait until I get into a classroom of my own and teach and learn.
> (Tina, personal communication, June 20, 2000)

One particularly interesting finding was that the preservice teachers viewed the practicing classroom teacher with whom they were paired as either a facilitator or a barrier to their learning about teaching. Many of the university students reported that their teacher partner allowed them to guide their own small group of students through the investigation. In every reported instance, the preservice teacher felt that the experience was a positive one in which they had the opportunity to practice their skills and learn more about young children. Preservice teachers placed with more teacher-centered partners reported frustration. University students compared two different classroom teachers with whom they had been partnered:

> I found this visit to the classroom was quite different from the first one. This head teacher seemed to hold a tighter grasp on her classroom; she more limited our activities with the students.
> (Ann, personal communication, June 26, 2000)

> Comparing this week with last week to me is hard because I didn't have any say in what was done last week. The teacher would not let us [preservice teachers] have any control over anything. This week the teacher was a lot more willing to try things. She asked our opinion. We made modifications from group to group.
> (Araceli, personal communication, June 26, 2000)

Overall, preservice teachers enjoyed working closely with in-service teachers, particularly if the partner teacher encouraged and nurtured the prospective teacher's active participation in the activities. Preservice teachers felt that they learned most about teaching when they were able to try out instructional strategies during small group investigations and then have an opportunity to discuss the day's activities with the classroom teacher. The following comment from one student reflects the general attitude of most of the preservice teachers:

> The teacher I worked with this week was a lot better than last week's teacher. She made me feel comfortable with the children and I liked her teaching skills. We always talked about the activities, but she let me do things in my own way. She let me work with a small group of children by myself.
> (Kathy, personal communication, June 27, 2000)

Conclusion

The results of this study strongly suggest that early childhood programs developed as a result of university/public school partnerships can reap benefits for all involved. Young children benefit from the variety of science experiences offered and the opportunities to explore the natural world. Preservice and in-service teachers develop a greater awareness of the benefits of an inquiry-based science program. Such experiences can also foster positive attitudes toward science and science teaching among preservice and in-service teachers as well as young children. By working cooperatively with in-service teachers, perspective educators are given valuable experience in hands-on science instruction in a safe environment where they are not solely responsible for planning and teaching. University students are also afforded opportunities to observe more experienced educators modeling instructional strategies and techniques for managing the pace and direction of instructional delivery. Therefore, it is equally important that preservice teachers work cooperatively with caring and competent in-service teachers that understand their crucial roles in nurturing the knowledge and skills of future generations of teachers.

These findings have important implications because most teacher education programs have eliminated or substantially cut back "methods" courses. For prospective educators to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy for teaching science, they need opportunities to observe effective teachers. In addition, these results indicate that providing opportunities for preservice teachers to practice what they have studied in university classes may be critical if true learning is to take place.

As teacher preparation programs move from university lecture halls into public school classrooms, opportunities for greater

collaboration between universities and public schools will certainly flourish. These collaborations can provide the environment in which strong inquiry-based science programs for young children can be developed and tested.

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Chapter 12

Developing a Curriculum Framework in Technology for Young Children

Stephen Rodriguez
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Technology in Early Childhood Education

Many educators believe that computers and other instructional technologies hold great potential for enhancing school learning. However, successful and appropriate uses of technology in the schools are often hampered by a number of factors. How prepared are teachers to use technology effectively? What technology skills should students acquire? How might those skills relate to the traditional curriculum? These questions were examined in a research project that focused on early childhood education. The context for the project was the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC). The university's College of Education and the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD) operate the school in partnership. Staffed by CCISD teachers, the school presently serves students at the prekindergarten through third grade levels.

Components of a Technology Framework

In initiating this project, the researchers first sought to identify the components of an effective technology framework. As a result of the research, three products were developed:

1. Scope and sequence documents that indicate computing competencies students are to acquire by grade-level
2. Tables organized in four technology strands that explain each strand and provide detailed descriptions of student tasks, related student activities, and germane software
3. A teacher handbook, which provides examples of curriculum-based, technology-oriented activities that a teacher can conduct with students.

As a follow-up to the project, the second author provided training to the ECDC teachers. This training focused on the development of the technology skills teachers required to follow through on implementation of the student technology standards established under the project.

Criticality of Planning for Technology Use

Using instructional technologies (IT) to improve young children's learning in the schools is not a simple matter. Rather, like any major social innovation, adoption and use of IT by teachers is a complex, multifaceted, and lengthy evolutionary process.

One is also cautioned to remember that technology is a means—a tool that must be used thoughtfully and in planned ways. Providing hardware and using technology are not end results in and of themselves:

> Technology alone cannot improve teaching and learning . . . Technology use must be grounded firmly in curriculum goals, incorporated in sound instructional process, and deeply integrated with subject-matter content. Absent this grounding, which too often is neglected in the rush to glittery application, changes in student performance are unlikely (Baker, Herman, & Gearhart, 1996, p. 200).

Clearly, planning how to integrate uses of technology into the school curriculum has emerged as a critical issue. Growth of the Internet and the World Wide Web, advances in digital video technology, and the introduction of alternative, affordable storage media such as "write-able" CD-ROMs all add to the challenge of successfully integrating technology in today's school curricula.

The present project entailed development of student technology standards. These standards represent a major component of an evolving plan to bring about meaningful, sustained uses of technology by teachers and students in the ECDC School.

Constructivism and Technology Use

Constructivist conceptions about human learning have emerged in the literature and at professional conferences as a central theme associated with technology use in the schools. The constructivist view holds that learning and knowledge construction are grounded in meaningful experience and individual meaning-making. Jonassen (2000) asserts that students do not learn anything, per se, from computers. Instead, he argues that teachers should use computers to

engage students in thinking meaningfully and representing their knowledge. Under this view, "...the most effective uses of computers in classrooms are for accessing information and interpreting, organizing, and representing personal knowledge" (p.4) rather than for studying traditional instructional software. Constructivist approaches are also applicable in regard to instructing adults about technology (Rodriguez, 1997).

Whereas the constructivist view holds appeal for many, most educators recognize that constructivist approaches must be balanced with more traditional instructional strategies, including direct instruction. Educators should thus strive to balance use of commercially produced software with more constructive activities involving analysis and display of data, communication between people, and development of multimedia and web-based products, among others.

Method

In initiating this study, the researchers first obtained approval for the project from the individuals responsible for directing and administering the ECDC School. Subsequently, the researchers visited the ECDC School. At this early meeting, they met with teachers and reviewed the current school curriculum. The teachers were greatly concerned about how to match the use of technology in thematic units with the school district's local standards, which had a technology element.

The researchers also reviewed various instructional materials currently being used with students. The intent was to identify specific components of the curriculum that would lend themselves to the use of computing technology by students.

The researchers also obtained and reviewed various student technology standards, which are discussed in the next section of this chapter. Based upon these reviews, they developed a synthesis of standards based upon the unique needs, curriculum, and student and teacher characteristics of the ECDC School. These served as the basis for other project components.

Throughout the course of the project, the principal and teachers of the school were consulted. Teachers were given drafts of various project documents and provided feedback and suggestions. The

principal supported the need for a scope and sequence document; this support was critical to the successful completion of the project. Equally critical was the feedback that teachers provided, especially with regard to the overall question of how to integrate technology within the existing curriculum.

The Search for Technology Standards

It is one thing to want to use technology with students. It is quite another to determine which body of skills and knowledge should be covered, and at what grade level. In order to derive a useful and appropriate set of standards for young children, the researchers reviewed accepted national, state, and local technology standards.

Those first reviewed were the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) National Educational Standards for Students, first published in 1998. These standards, representing a synthesis of responses from many groups and individuals across the country, are organized into six strands, with goals identified for each strand and performance indicators identified for each goal. The standards address the following areas:

1. Basic operations and concepts
2. Social, ethical, and human issues
3. Technology productivity tools
4. Technology communication tools
5. Technology research tools
6. Technology problem-solving and decision-making tools

Once national standards had been identified, the authors turned to the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) for technology, also known as the TEKS for Technology Applications (Texas Education Agency, 2001). They can be used by school districts to focus the attention on teaching and learning of technology skills. The overall purpose is to promote students' lifelong learning as citizens in a technological age. The immediate goal is to give teachers support for using technology in their curriculum by outlining clearly defined goals.

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promote students' lifelong learning as citizens in a technological age. The immediate goal is to give teachers support for using technology in their curriculum by outlining clearly defined goals.

The TEKS address the acquisition of technology application skills as a continuum, progressing from the elementary to twelfth-grade level. The technology TEKS are organized by benchmarks, not by grade level, thus giving some flexibility in the way school campuses can achieve the goals over a three-year period. Students are expected to demonstrate targeted proficiency levels before exiting second-, fifth-, and eighth-grade. Embedded within the grade clusters are four strands, or levels, with appropriate student expectations in skills and knowledge for each strand.

The first strand is the Foundation Level, which compares directly with the ISTE standards Basic Operations and Concepts level. At the Foundation Level of the Texas Technology TEKS, the students are expected to demonstrate knowledge of hardware components. Specific skills at this level include using the correct and appropriate input and output devices, demonstrating keyboarding skills, navigating successfully within the desktop, saving files, and using peripherals. Also in this strand, the Texas technology standards address social, ethical, and human issues related to technology use. Related examples include following the school district's Acceptable Use Policy and displaying respect for intellectual property.

The second strand, the Information Acquisition Level, requires students to gather varieties of information from electronic sources. This involves performing keyboard searches and navigating successfully to access information in text, audio, video, graphical, or combined modes. Students must gather the information; they must also evaluate the relative success of the search and the credibility and usefulness of the acquired information.

The third area targets Problem-Solving. Here the students are expected to create and modify problem solutions, using software to incorporate audio, video or graphic components. At this level, students also conduct research using electronic tools in order to justify the recommended solution. The students should generally be able to use word processing and multimedia software to explain ideas and to solve problems.

The fourth strand is the Communication Level. Students should be able to present audiovisual information using appropriate fonts,

graphics, and color, all of which are geared to enhance communication. Other communication skills and knowledge include suitable printed output, consideration of monitor displays, video presentations, and use of electronic mail. The expectation is that the student should select appropriate applications in order to facilitate and evaluate communication.

The teachers at the ECDC were aware of the Texas Technology TEKS, but were more concerned about meeting the standards that had been set by the school district. CCISD's standards are presented in *Real-World Academics Standards: Standards for the New Millennium Pre-K Grade 6* (2000). Once again, elements of the national standards and the requirements of the state standards can be detected in the district's standards.

The CCISD's standards did not give a specific scope and sequence of skills that should be taught at different grade levels. Such a tool could prove useful to teachers when integrating technology within the curriculum because it would reveal levels of expected skill accomplishment.

Products Resulting from the Project

Overall, national, state, and local standards are fairly consistent. So the authors synthesized them to derive a coherent set of technology standards for teachers and students of the ECDC school. These were captured in a scope and sequence document, which provides a specific skills list by grade level. Major skill areas include Computer Familiarity, Keyboarding, Word Processing, Draw Applications, Desktop Publishing, Database Environment, Spreadsheet Environment, Telecomputing, Multimedia, Computer Simulation, and Computer Ethics (Williams & Rodriguez, 2000).

A set of tables was produced to demonstrate how the curriculum, the Texas Technology TEKS, and the ECDC technology scope and sequence could be merged to produce learning activities for the ECDC students. Each Texas Technology TEKS strand was described and then a number of tasks, or performance objectives, were listed for each grade level within the strand. A variety of student activities from the grade level thematic units were matched with each task, and the required software was listed. Examples of these activities are shown in Table 1. This was done for each strand and grade level. The teachers

could see examples for their own grade level, They could also use the tables for ideas and look across grade levels to see the desired progression (Williams & Rodriguez, 2000).

Table 1

Sample Scope-and-Sequence Activities Keyed to Texas Technology TEKS

Strand	Grade Level	Task	Student Activity	Application
Communications	PreK 3	Introduce concept of print and drawing as a form of communication.	Students draw and write on the screen and then explain their ideas to peers or other designated persons.	KidPix
	PreK 4	Show that graphics can tell meaning.	Put together a sequence of pictures showing firemen going to the fire and putting fire out.	
	Kindergarten	Understand that large, bold print is designed to attract attention.	Study newspapers and notice headlines.	Claris Works
	First	Send e-mail messages to known respondents.	Open Internet browser and send email message previously prepared	Netscape Navigator
	Second	Post message on an electronic bulletin board.	Subscribe to NASA and ask experts for information concerning class assignment.	Netscape Navigator
	Third	Determine when Internet search may be effective.	Use the download facility and then find the downloaded material for use. Discuss the concept that using a book or a CDROM, already available in the classroom may be more effective, and quicker than logging on to the Internet and then locating information.	Netscape Navigator Grolier Encyclopedia
	Fourth	Access and navigate web sites.	Integrate the thematic units with Internet searches and CDROM searches.	Netscape Navigator
Strand	Grade Level	Task	Student Activity	Application

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Foundations	Pre K3	Introduce basic terms: monitor, keyboard, mouse.	Obtain old computer that can be broken down and rebuilt.	Computer
	Pre K4	Identify technology uses at work and at play.	Tour school to locate computers and their use.	Local School
	Kindergarten	Demonstrate correct care and use of computers	Show touch fingering and controlled mouse clicking	KidPix Broder bound stories
	First	Key words and sentences using a word processor.	Participate in group writing of story; the story started by one group that leaves the computer after writing, then next group comes to read the story so far and continues.	KidPix Claris Works
	Second	Understand important issues in an information technology-based society.	Discuss any newsworthy issues regarding information technology e.g. hacking into networks.	Search Internet with Netscape and Internet search engines
	Third	Recognize that Copyright Law protects what a person, group or company has created.	Tell why it is against the law to make a copy of copyrighted software. Role-play situations that involve illegal copying of another person's computer work or software.	
	Fourth	Demonstrate proper keyboarding techniques for keying all letters.	Word process a paragraph using proper keyboarding techniques; edit the paragraph, save changes, print out.	ClarisWorks Children's Learning Center Storybook Weaver Deluxe

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Strand	Grade Level	Task	Student Activity	Application
Problem Solving	Pre K3	Develop awareness that technology has a function and a place.	Students to be shown various forms of technology and to develop an understanding for their use. Hardware such as TV, digital camera, and computers can be studied. Students can offer their use.	ClarisWorks
	Pre K4	Discuss how technology helps people.	Teacher demonstrates use of computer to write a letter, or a newsletter, for home.	ClarisWorks
	Kindergarten	Collect data and graph the data to help with problem solving.	Collect information on number of students who ride the bus compared with those who ride in a car. Graph data to see if the school needs more parking spaces for buses or cars.	ClarisWorks KidPix Graph Club
	First	Data base library books in class.	Tracking class library books, a problem which can be addressed by building a database of books and then keeping record of borrowers. Simple two-field data base, which can grow as students become accomplished.	Claris Works
	Second	Use simulation software.	Model a town using boxes and other junk, then use SimTown to model the town and compare the differences and the similarities. Notice how the software can enhance the simulation.	SimTown
	Third	Use telecommunication for research into nature of problems and possible solutions.	Use newsrooms and BBS for support with ways to create more wildlife habitat within city e.g. Texas Parks and Wildlife website.	Netscape Navigator
	Fourth	Record and communicate information regarding a problem.	Work with groups to solve a problem. Post problem and solution for other groups to consider.	ClarisWorks
Strand	Grade Level	Task	Student Activity	Application

Information Acquisition	Pre K3	Tell a short story.	Teacher transcribes story to computer for possible email letter to electronic pen pals.	Netscape Navigator
	Pre K4	Group items by different attributes using manipulatives and/or software.	Students click on shapes and colors and put into sets by dragging shapes or drawing created by teacher.	ClarisWorks
	Kindergarten	Select software from the Launcher that will provide the information needed.	Select from the teacher-made multimedia profile student of choice. Click on sound clips telling more about the student.	HyperStudio
	First	Participate in the creation of a class multimedia sequential/ linear story.	Develop multimedia story from paper storyboard.	HyperStudio
	Second	Collect, sort and organize information to display as a graph or chart.	Collect birthdays, days, colors, favorite pets and record in database. Present information in the form of a chart or a graph.	ClarisWorks
	Third	Evaluate the success of strategies used to acquire information.	Evaluate the material found before printing or using. Download useful and appropriate graphic material.	
	Fourth	Describe examples of people using computers to access information in daily life.	Using email or postal service, write to a variety of previously contacted technology-using workers. Visit one nearby office and write up visit using slide show presentations with digital photographs.	Netscape Navigator ClarisWorks

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Finally, the teacher handbook provides examples of curriculum-based, technology-oriented activities that teachers can conduct with students. Activities described in the teacher handbook are aligned with both the derived technology standards and the overall school curriculum.

Closing Thoughts

The present project represents an important step in the evolution of technology use in the ECDC School. Follow-through on the work accomplished under the present project will be critical. Regular contact with teachers of the ECDC School and the provision of related training will be essential in order to establish sustained use of the recommended student standards in technology.

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Unit VI

HEALTHCARE LITERACY

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Chapter 13

A School Healthcare Program for Low Income Families of Very Young Children

Esperanza Villanueva Joyce

191

The United States has one of the most ethnically diverse populations in the world. This diversity has grown because the country is so vast geographically and for many years has had fairly open immigration laws. While African Americans make up a significant percentage of the American population, Hispanics are the fastest growing minority. It is estimated that more than 32 million Hispanics live in the U.S. (Bureau of the Census, 2000). According to the Census Bureau Facts (1999), Hispanics are subdivided into Mexican-Americans (63 percent), Puerto Rican (14 percent), Cuban (4 percent), and Central or South Americans (14 percent). Texas' population of over 20 million is 20% Hispanic. In Nueces County, Texas, the population is over 300,000; 55.8% of that population is of Hispanic origin, primarily Mexican-American (Bureau of the Census, FSCPE, 2000).

A variety of chronic health conditions and concomitant social problems generally exist in poor minority populations. Violent trauma and a higher prevalence of mental illness are two medical situations associated with poverty. Higher infant mortality rates are often seen in subgroups such as African Americans, American Indians, and Mexican-Americans. Certain chronic disease conditions also occur more frequently in specific minority groups. For example, diabetes is pronounced in Mexican-Americans and hypertension is predominantly found in Blacks. Another concern is that the incidence of obesity in children has increased by 59% in the United States (American Heart Association, 2000). This is particularly significant because obesity leads to chronic diseases such as coronary heart disease, diabetes, adult obesity and hypertension. In Nueces County, tuberculosis is endemic, and cardiovascular disease and cancer are the top mortality causes (Bureau of the Census, FSCPE, 2000).

Early Childhood Development Center

The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) on the campus of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC), was established in November 1996, with eighty-eight children admitted to its dual language program (English and Spanish). The children were residents of the city of Corpus Christi and were selected via a lottery system. They represented a mix of ethnic backgrounds as well as socio-economic levels. Currently, there are 128 children enrolled in grades

pre-K to three. Approximately 63% percent of the student population has a low socio-economic background. This ethnic mix and socio-economic background is intended to reflect the population enrolled in the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD).

The health care of the ECDC children is provided by a registered nurse who operates from a clinic within the ECDC. In addition, a pediatric nurse practitioner (PNP), an employee of the School of Nursing who is also the Director of the Island Wellness Clinic (housed at the ECDC), serves as a consultant to the registered nurse. Approximately 200 visits per month are logged in the school nurse's records. Ailments ranging from stomachaches and fevers to minor trauma are some of the common complaints presented by ECDC children and addressed by the school nurse. Oral medications and inhaler and nebulizer treatments are also administered.

The school nurse maintains records in a computerized master system that allows her to record data such as physical assessments, vital statistics, and hearing and vision results for each child enrolled in the ECDC. The school nurse is also involved in teaching health-related topics at least twice a week. Instruction is specifically tailored to the children's grade level. The school complies with the rules and regulations of the CCISD, and all required reports and statistics are filed and kept confidential.

Wellness and nutrition go hand in hand. The children at the ECDC are served breakfast and lunch in the cafeteria. The food services department of the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD) provides meals. The CCISD provides lunches for 31,000 students district-wide; 21,753 of the students are eligible for free meals or reduced-priced meals (CCISD, 2000).

Optimizing Wellness through Screening and Education Project

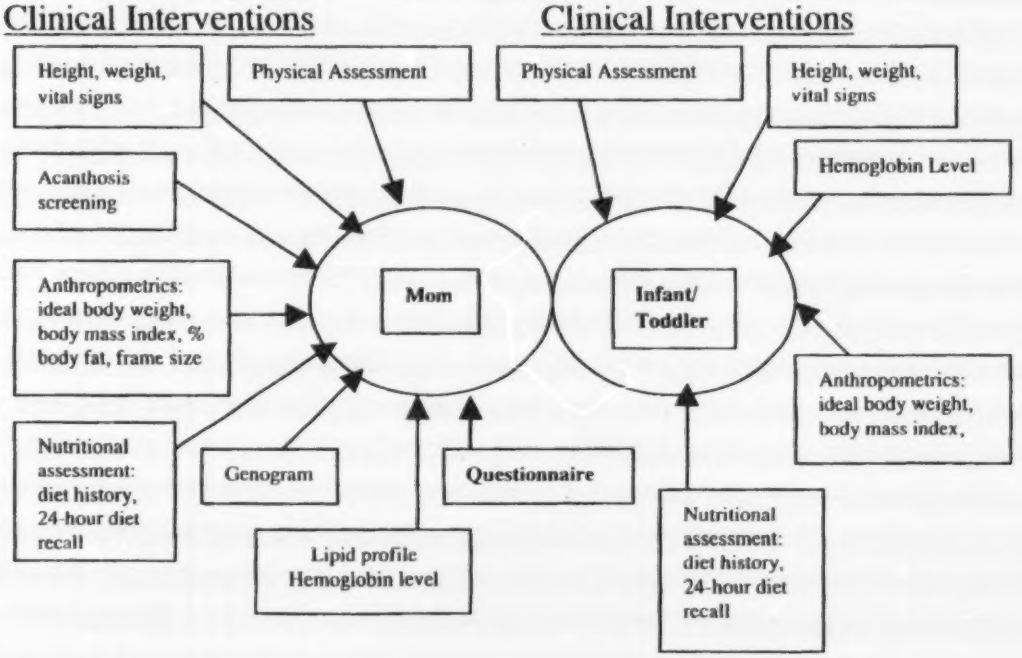
The relationship between nutrition and wellness, especially in children and families, served as the focus of a research study at the ECDC. The basis for this wellness study was the belief that potential health risk factors in students and their parents could, and should, be identified at an early stage. Traditionally, childbearing women, infants, and children are considered to be the most dependent and vulnerable members of the community. If health risk factors are not detected at an early age, they will impact the future productivity as

well as the intellectual achievement of children. The health of children ensures society's future.

This wellness study attempted to assess the mother's knowledge of issues related to parenting, child-care, and anticipatory guidance. Thus, the results of the study have implications for nursing practice, parent teaching, and interventions with children. It is also hoped that this project might serve as a model for involving the university's nursing students in practical research. In addition, referrals to internal groups such as counseling, reading, and motor development specialists will provide a coalition of experts working together to improve the children's wellness levels.

Thus, the research study's focus was: to develop a wellness model (see below) for children enrolled in the Early Childhood Development Center, to promote the involvement and coordinated participation of parents or significant others, and to reduce the risk of illness in children. The health variables measured in the study are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Data collection for parents and children



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Purpose

The specific aims of the study were to: (a) collaborate with ECDC faculty, staff, parents and food services to provide support for the project, (b) implement a screening program that included physical assessment, diet evaluation, personal histories, biochemical tests, and anthropometrics and, (c) design, implement and evaluate a series of educational presentations for children and parents.

The timeline of the study consisted of the following:

	Activities	2001 Semester
1.	Conduct parent-child meetings	Spring, Summer
2.	Develop screening program	Spring-Summer.
3.	Train assistants to a provide screenings, conduct assessments and nutritional interventions	Spring
4.	Implement the screening program	Spring, Summer,
5.	Develop, implement and evaluate educational programs	Spring, Summer
6.	Develop a dissemination plan	Summer, Fall

The sources of data collection for the study included:

1.	Medical Data:	Medical history form both for mother and infant/toddler
2.	Socio-economic data:	Questionnaire
3.	Family genogram:	Shows family history and patterns of health-related information at least for three generations
4.	24 hr. diet recall:	Shows the intake of food for the last 24 hours
5.	Diet History:	Indicates change of appetite, food intolerance or other problems related to nutrition
6.	Clinical observation:	Physical assessment for mother and infant/toddler
7.	Anthropometrics:	Height, weight, changes in weight in last six months, Body Mass Index (index for estimating obesity) Ideal Body Weight (detects over-nutrition/under-nutrition), Mid-arm Circumference (detects muscle mass), and Frame size
8.	Chemistry:	For the mother, a lipid Panel via a finger-stick is performed and a drop of blood is collected to obtain cholesterol, HDL, triglyceride, and glucose levels. In addition, a hemoglobin level is also collected. For the infant/toddler, a sample of blood is collected from the foot in order to obtain a hemoglobin level.

Evaluation

Evaluation for this project was both formative and summative. Formatively, the evaluation plan allowed researchers to make refinements in the approach and the methods of reaching the target population. Summatively, the evaluation provided a comprehensive assessment of the project's performance in achieving the anticipated outcomes. See Table 1.

Table 1. Evaluation Process and Outcomes

Objective	Process	Outcomes/Evaluation
1. Plan parent-child meetings	Convene meetings	Maintain minutes
2. Develop screening program	Develop screening program; determine referral system	Written goals and objectives; forms for documenting assessments; documentation of all tools utilized; track referrals
3. Train assistants to provide screening program, conduct assessments, and nutritional interventions	Recruit assistants; develop training package	Manual for trainees, evaluate trainees
4. Implement the screening program	Schedule screening	Track screenings; evaluate results
5. Develop, implement and evaluate educational programs	Develop program; Implement plans; Evaluate interventions	Track family risk factors; track family compliance; track children's eating habits and knowledge of nutrition Provide growth and development guidance Establish a summer camp for children.

Pre-Implementation of the Study

Prior to the implementation of the study, the school principal received information about the study and gave permission for the research. Once the principal approved, the study was sent to TAMUCC IRB (Institutional Review Board) for approval. A meeting with parents followed to determine their interest in the study. Initially,

only four mothers returned the consent form. Within weeks, other parents agreed to participate in the study.

Implementation of the Study

A total of 18 parents/guardians and 30 children participated in the study. Each parent completed a questionnaire and a past medical history form. In addition, each parent participated in a variety of assessments that included: height, weight, temperature, blood pressure, physical assessment, Acanthosis Nigricans screening, 24 hour diet recall, diet history, and laboratory screening. The laboratory screening consisted of obtaining blood via a finger-stick to test for cholesterol, triglycerides, HDL, LDL, glucose and hemoglobin levels.

Preliminary Findings

Children statistics

Thirty children participated in the study. A physical assessment was conducted for each child; no abnormalities were noted. The height of the children ranged from 23 inches to 56.5 inches. The weight range of the children was 17 pounds to 50 pounds. Normal hemoglobin range for this age group is 10.4 to 12.8. The hemoglobin level of those children who participated in the study ranged from 10.3 to 15.4. Overall, it was noted that the children assessed were healthy, had good motor skills and were developing as expected.

Eighteen parents participated in the study: two male (12%) and 16 female (88%). Their ages ranged from less than 20 (6%) to 21 to 40 (50%). The remainder (44%) did not answer this question. Seventy-eight percent of the parents were Hispanic. Eighty-nine percent were married and living in a nuclear family. There was only one single and one separated parent. The reported income for the participating parents ranged from $10,000 to $20,000 (17%) and from $20,001 to $40,000 (56%). The remainder (27%) of the parents did not provide income information. The educational background indicated that 61% of the parents had completed one to four years of college; 39% had finished high school. Thus, a limitation of the study was that all of the parents were relatively well-educated.

Adult Health-Related Statistics

The participating parents were relatively healthy, with 89% stating that they had seen a doctor within the last year. Fifty-six percent claimed to have health insurance, 39% stated they had no insurance, and 5% did not respond to the question. Only 28% of the parents worked, yet 67% indicated that they did not have enough time to do the things they like to do. Most of the parents reported that they engaged in rather sedentary activities; 94% indicated that they watched television and 72% stated that they read magazines as their hobbies. In addition, exercise did not play a prominent role in their daily activities. Thirty-three percent of the parents reported never exercising. Fifty percent of the parents reported being overweight. The average weight for these subject was 148 pounds, with the weight ranging from 103 to 225 pounds. The body mass index (BMI) for these parents ranged from 21 to 31. BMIs higher than 25 are associated with obesity, and, therefore expose the subjects to higher health risks. Nutritionally, the parents who participated in the study seemed to eat fairly balanced diets. Eighty-nine percent of the subjects reported ingesting meat frequently, 72% reported eating green vegetables, and 78% included breads and fruits in their diets. Only 33% of the subjects indicated eating eggs daily.

Laboratory results of the lipid profile revealed that most of the subjects had chemistries within the normal ranges. Ideally, adult cholesterol levels should be kept below 220. The cholesterol range for the study group was 134 to 255. Adult levels of triglycerides, the amount of fat in the circulating blood, should be between 10 and 150. The triglyceride level in the study group ranged from 45 to 237. Only two of the subjects had triglyceride levels higher than 150. Only one of the parents had an elevated glucose level. Hemoglobin, an indicator of iron deficiency, should be maintained between the 11 and 16 range. The average hemoglobin level of the group was 13, with ranges of 11 to 16.

Parents were given immediate feedback regarding their laboratory test results. They were also given information regarding a variety of nutrition topics. In addition, recommendations such as decreasing saturated fat content in the family's diet and information about diabetes, obesity and heart disease were provided for the parents.

Recent Study

A nutrition and exercise camp was conducted during Summer 2001. Sixty-three students attended this camp. The mission of this camp was to introduce children and their parents to healthy eating and appropriate exercise. Staff from the Texas A&M Agriculture Center and from the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi School of Nursing participated in teaching parents to prepare healthy meals. In addition, camp counselors conducted structured exercise and nutrition activities with the children. The health status of 43 students (32.8% of the ECDC population) is being tracked during the Fall 2001 and Spring 2002 school year.

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Chapter 14

Use of Children's Literature in a Comprehensive School Guidance Program for Young Children

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Introduction

Bibliotherapy, the therapeutic use of books, can play an instrumental role in comprehensive school guidance programs. The purpose of this chapter is to describe how school counselors promoted healthcare literacy using children's literature as part of a comprehensive developmental guidance program for very young children. This chapter defines comprehensive developmental school guidance programs and emphasizes practical school counseling applications for engaging children and families in healthcare literacy. Sample guidance lessons and an annotated bibliography of useful books for counselors and teachers are included in the appendices.

Developmental guidance as defined by Myrick (1997): (a) is for all students, (b) has an organized and planned curriculum, (c) is sequential and flexible, (d) is an integrated part of the total school process, (e) involves all school personnel, (f) helps students learn more effectively and efficiently, and (g) includes counselors who provide counseling services and interventions. Other authors have supported developmental school counseling models in which counseling services are available to all students (e. g., Bailey, Deery, Gehrke, Perry & Whitledge, 1989; Borders & Drury, 1992; Carter, 1993; Hardesty & Dillard, 1994; McDowell & Sayger, 1992; Paisley & Borders, 1995; Paisley & Peace, 1995; Snyder & Daly, 1993; Stulac & Stanwyck, 1980). Paisley and Borders (1995) stated that appropriate school counseling programs should be comprehensive and developmental programs emphasizing primary prevention and promoting the healthy development of all students. O'Dell, Rak, Chermonte, Hamlin, and Waina (1996) defined developmental programs as programs that are available to all students and that improve competencies in personal, social, and career goal planning. This developmental approach affirms that guidance is for everyone and its purpose is to develop all students to their maximum potential.

Traditionally, comprehensive developmental guidance programs have addressed the educational, vocational, personal, and social (American School Counselor Association, 1992) needs of students in kindergarten through twelfth grade. Comprehensive guidance programs, however, have rarely been expanded to three- and four-year-old classrooms. At the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC)

campus, the comprehensive developmental school counseling program was expanded to three- and four-year-old classrooms and included the use of children's literature to promote healthcare literacy. A number of counselors working in traditional K through 12 schools have incorporated children's literature into their guidance curriculum (Jackson, In Press). For example, *Oh, The Places You'll Go* by Dr. Seuss (1990) has been used in classroom guidance lessons for students moving from fifth to sixth grade as part of articulation (see Appendix A). In addition, counselors have utilized stories such as *Dinosaur Divorce* by Brown and Brown (1986) individually and with groups of students who have divorced parents. The documented use of literature by counselors with very young children, however, is rare.

In Texas, guidance programs are organized around the following components as defined by The Texas Education Agency (TEA, 1998): (1) guidance curriculum, (2) responsive services, (3) individual planning, and (4) system support. The guidance curriculum consists of activities such as teaching classroom guidance, assisting in teaching classroom guidance, or coordinating classroom guidance. Responsive services include activities such as counseling with individual students and small groups; consulting with parents, teachers, and administrators; coordinating with school and community personnel; and using referral and assessment processes to assist students. Individual planning involves activities such as guiding students through the development of educational, career, and personal plans, and interpreting assessment results with students and parents. System support consists of activities such as planning and evaluating the counseling program, supervising personnel, and planning standardized testing.

At the Early Childhood Development Center, children's literature was used during guidance curriculum, responsive services, and individual planning in a three- and four-year-old comprehensive developmental guidance program. Since 1916 when Samuel Crothers created the term bibliotherapy to refer to the therapeutic use of books, counselors have used books in therapy (Atwater & Smith, 1982; Smith & Burkhalter, 1987; Starker, 1988). Children's literature contains thousands of years of stories and emotions about families and society and, therefore, was a useful component in the school counseling program, especially a school counseling program for very young children. At the ECDC, two TAMUCC faculty members and five

counseling education practicum students used bibliotherapy with elementary students. More than 174 classroom sessions, lasting 30 minutes, were conducted. The practicum students spent approximately 400 hours per semester providing individual counseling, small group sessions, classroom guidance, consultation, and coordination. Counselors used children's stories in order to help children:

1. Develop a more positive sense of self
2. Learn about the world
3. Cope with stress
4. Provide insight into problems
5. Affirm thoughts and feelings
6. Stimulate discussion about problems
7. Create an awareness that others have similar problems
8. Provide solutions to problems
9. Communicate new values and attitudes
10. Find meaning in life (Pardeck, 1994)

Children learned about how to solve problems by observing the way characters in books solve problems. These observations assisted children in handling their own related problems. The interaction with a counselor while discussing these stories helped children gain valuable insights. School counselors, in this way, promoted healthcare literacy by using children's literature as part of a comprehensive developmental guidance program for very young children.

School counselors also used literature in classroom guidance activities. Stories such as *The Rainbow Fish* (Pfister, 1992) were used in classrooms to discuss interpersonal relationships (see Appendix B). *Pig Will and Pig Won't* (Scarry, 1995) was used to help three- and four-year-olds describe and discuss rules and why rules are necessary (see Appendix C).

Counselors shared selected books with individual students as part of responsive service activities. These books had themes related to the child's individual situation. For example, a counselor chose to read the story *Nine Candles* (Testa, 1996) with a child who had a parent in jail and *Zachary's New Home* (Blomquist, 1990) with a child who was in foster care.

Counselors also used related stories with teachers and parents as part of consultation, by suggesting relevant books, many of which are included in the annotated bibliography, for parents or teachers to read aloud with the child. During individual planning activities, counselors used literature that discussed personal, academic and career goals. Books such as *Oh, The Places You'll Go* (Seuss, 1990) and *Mr. Griggs' Work* (Rylant, 1989) helped very young children begin to explore career choices. Counselors used literature in a variety of ways in comprehensive guidance programs. These are some specific suggestions that counselors found useful when using literature with very young children (Disque & Langenbrunner, 1996):

1. Try to illicit comments about the story and encourage children to express thoughts about the content and characters. "What word comes to mind when you think of the story we read?"
2. Ask children to choose the book or character with whom they identify.
3. Use questions to facilitate reflection, such as, "What did you like about this story?" "If you could be like one of the characters in the story, whom would you choose? Why?" "What will you remember about this book?"
4. Help children make comparisons with experiences from their own lives and the story.
5. Ask questions such as: "Do you ever feel like that?" "Do you ever wish you were like that?" "What would you do if you were that character in the story?" "What do you do when you feel like that?" "Have you ever felt that mad (sad, scared, happy)?" "Do you wish you could do that when you get mad?"
6. Connect the book and characters with real-life experiences of the group/class. Have the class discuss similarities and differences among story/book characters. Discuss similarities between the children and characters in the book and identify desired behaviors. Discuss when they acted like that and when they didn't.
7. Have child/class identify changes in characters' feelings, relationships, or behaviors.

8. Discuss with child/class consequences of behaviors or feelings and discuss alternative solutions to characters problems.
9. Have children participate in the dramatic retelling of the story by drawing or painting scenes from the story, role playing various characters, creating puppets to re-enact the story events, or rewriting the story using a different ending.

Counselors implemented many of these suggestions while using literature with very young children at the ECDC. The following case studies illustrate three specific counseling interventions.

Intervention 1: Guidance Curriculum

School counselors created a classroom guidance lesson at the request of a teacher using the story *Pig Will and Pig Won't* (Scarry, 1995). The lesson was designed to help three- and four-year-old children develop and incorporate an understanding of the rights and responsibility of citizens. Children were first asked to define a rule. Next children were asked to describe the rules they must follow at home and at school. The counselor then shared the story of *Pig Will and Pig Won't* with the class. After telling the story of *Pig Will and Pig Won't*, the counselor introduced the Pig Will and Pig Won't puppets. Pig Will and Pig Won't puppets were made by the counselor prior to going to the classroom and had velcro mouths that could be changed from frowns to smiles (see Appendix C). Students were asked to volunteer to be Pig Will and Pig Won't and the counselor gave directives such as "Walk in the hallway," "Eat with your mouth closed," "Raise your hand to speak in group," "Wait your turn to speak," "Sit quietly in your seat," and "Use inside voices." Children playing with the Pig Will puppet were coached to respond to each directive by nodding their heads and saying, "I will." Children playing with the Pig Won't puppet were coached to respond to each directive by shaking their heads and saying, "I won't." After several directives were given, the class members were asked what kind of day they thought each of the pigs would be having. Children responded that Pig Won't would probably be having a bad day whereas Pig Will would probably be having a great day. Next, children were asked how Pig

Won't could turn his day around. The counselor then whispered to the child playing Pig Won't and told him to change his responses to "Me, too!" When the next directive was given and Pig Won't responded, "Me, too!" his frown became a smile and the counselor told the children how Pig Won't became known as Pig Me, Too! At the end of the lesson with the class, the counselor had each child come forward and hold Pig Will and tell one thing that they would do to cooperate at school during the rest of the day. Color sheets with Pig Will were also left with the teacher as a reinforcement activity. This lesson illustrates how counselors used children's literature as part of guidance curriculum activities in a comprehensive counseling program for very young children.

Intervention 2: Responsive Services

Counselors also used children's literature during individual and group counseling activities with three- and four-year-old children. Counselors followed these general guidelines during responsive services (Chatton, 1988):

1. Realize that children who do not like to read or do not know the pleasure of books may not be helped by bibliotherapy.
2. Read widely in order to be able to offer a range of books not necessarily on topics but on themes that may be healing for children suffering from all kinds of problems.
3. Trust children to select stories appropriate for their own healing and give them time to read.
4. Have lots of books available for children on many subjects and themes.
5. Become a trusted recommending source so that in time of difficulty teachers and parents approach you for suggestions of good books to read.
6. Talk with children as they read books. Develop an atmosphere in which people are encouraged to share both their personal and literary responses to books.
7. Never suggest a book that you have not read yourself.
8. Never attempt to rescue a child with a book.

9. Look for books that have activities, themes, or interactive questions for the reader.

When a young girl was referred for counseling by her foster parents, the counselor met individually with the child and had available a selection of books dealing with adopted and foster families. The counselor read *Zachary's New Home* (Blomquist, 1990) to the child and then discussed the story. Next the counselor had the child construct a home for Zachary out of art material. Using play dough, the counselor made a replica of the character in the book, Zachary, and asked the child to place Zachary somewhere within the house that they had built. The counselor then asked questions about what it was like for Zachary in that home. Using *Zachary's New Home* (Blomquist, 1990) and the art activities described above, the school counselor incorporated the use of children's literature into a guidance program serving three- and four-year-old children.

Intervention 3: Planning.

Finally, counselors used literature as part of individual planning activities within the comprehensive guidance program. Even children as young as three and four can begin career exploration, and children's literature can be used to expose children to a variety of different careers. *Guess Who?* (Leonard, 2000), a lift-the-flap book was used by the school counselor to introduce different careers to young children. After sharing the book with the children, the counselor showed the boys and girls some previously constructed hats that represented various careers from the story (chef, police officer, fire fighter, clown, etc.). The counselor invited children to volunteer to come forward to play a game in which the counselor chose a hat for the child to wear without him/her seeing the hat. The class would then give clues to the child with the hat on as to the kinds of activities a person having that job would do. The children enjoyed this interactive and fast-paced game. One of the particularly interesting hats was a scuba diver mask. Children used this as an astronaut or a diver. Many other non-traditional occupations may be introduced by bringing a variety of hats to the classroom to add to those occupations depicted in the book *Guess Who?*

Conclusion

In conclusion, literature can be used successfully to expand comprehensive developmental school guidance programs to promote healthcare literacy among very young children. Counseling programs that attend to the child's social and affective development using literature compliment early childhood development programs. This chapter has demonstrated how school counselors can successfully expand their services to pre-school age children and become instrumental in early prevention activities.

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Managing Anger and Bad Days

Bang, M. (2000). When Sophie gets angry — really, really angry. New York: Scholastic.
Describes all the things Sophie does to feel better when she gets really, really angry. Includes colorful illustrations.

Everitt, B. (1992). Mean soup. San Diego, CA: Voyager Books, Harcourt Brace.
Mom helps Horace make a pot of mean soup to stir away a bad day. Creative artwork.

Mayer, M. (1983). I was so mad. New York: Golden Book Publishing.
Little critter wants to run away because he doesn't get to do any thing he wants to do all day long. Instead he decides to accept an invitation to play ball with friends.

Viorst, J. (1972). Alexander and the terrible, horrible, no good, very bad day. New York: Aladdin Books, Macmillan Publishing Company.
The day starts with gum in his hair and ends with the Mickey Mouse light burning out. Alexander learns some days are just bad.

Hyperactivity

Carlson, N. (1996). *Sit still.* New York: Puffin Books.
Patrick can't sit still, and his mother makes a plan to keep him busy.

Emotions

Curtis, J. L. (1998). *Today I feel silly & other moods that make my day.* Joanna Cotler Books, HarperCollins.
A child's emotions range from silly to grumpy to glad during the day. Includes attractive illustrations and a cardstock copy of child in which facial expressions can be changed.

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Provides activities to assist children in identifying and dealing with feelings.

Hajdusiewicz, B. B. (1996). *My faces.* Carlsbad, CA: Dominie Press.

Child can make many faces to express feelings- pouting, scary, merry etc.

Freymann, S., & Elffers, J. (1999). *How are you peeling?: Foods with moods*. New York: Arthur Levine Books, Scholastic Press.

Photography by Nimkin/Parrinello of fruit and vegetable sculptures representing all kinds of moods. Questions are asked of the reader/listener.

Career Awareness

Leonard, M. (2000). *Guess who?* HannaBooks, HarperFestival.

A lift the flap book inviting the child to listen to clues and guess who's behind the flap—police officer, farmer, clown, chef, doctor, fire fighter, and terrific kid.

Relationships

Heine, H. (1986). *Friends*. New York: Aladdin Paperbacks, Simon & Schuster.

Friends Charlie Rooster, Johnny Mouse and fat Percy the Pig share everything but learn that good friends don't have to be together all the time. Addresses differences.

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Little Critter learns it is nice to be alone but that being with family can be more fun.

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Kate is bothered because her little sister wants to do everything Kate does, but she is also bothered when Tory has her own friends and doesn't follow Kate anymore.

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Rainbow Fish makes friends and finds happiness by sharing his shining scales. A prize-winning picture book.

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Four-year-old Katie tries to be independent by performing tasks without help. Even though there are accidents, her mom, dad, and grandma are lovingly patient with her.

McBratney, S. (1994). *Guess how much I love you.* Cambridge, MA: Candlewick Press.

Watercolor illustrations by Anita Jeram. Every night at bedtime little Nutbrown Hare tells his father, Big Nutbrown Hare, how much he loves him. Dad shows his son that he loves him even more.

Adoption

Keller, H. (1995). *Horace.* New York: Mulberry Books.

A mother and father tiger adopt a baby leopard that has many questions about why he is different. Questions are handled with sensitivity.

Diversity

Hamanaka, S. (1994). *All the colors of the earth.* New York: Mulberry Books.

A colorful book that celebrates the diversity of children. The story shows the relationship between skin color and the colors of the earth.

Divorce

Weninger, B. (1994). *Good-bye, daddy!* New York: Mulberry Books.

A young bear learns that even when father bear has to live in another home, the love and caring is still there.

Miscellaneous

Bourgeois, P. B., & Clark, B. (1995). *Franklin's blanket.* New York: Scholastic.

Franklin's bedtime ritual of a goodnight story, a goodnight hug, a glass of water, and his blue blanket is upset when he loses his blanket.

Note: The Franklin books are a source of stories about many childhood issues.

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Appendix A

Lesson Plan for *Oh, the places you'll go!* (Seuss. 1990)

Lesson Title : *Oh, the places you'll go!*

Content Area: Achievement Motivation

Competency: Students will recognize that they are unique individuals with different experiences and that these experiences will provide them with insights into decision making throughout their lives.

Activities:

1. Have volunteers share experiences (positive and negative) that they have had in school. List these on the board and discuss similarities and differences among the students.
2. Have volunteers share an important decision they have had to make this year. List and discuss.
3. Solicit experiences and activities the children are looking forward to in middle school. List and discuss.
4. Have volunteers share any preconceived apprehensions/misconceptions regarding middle school. List and discuss. Try to clear up as many as possible.
5. Talk to the students about how we all have different experiences in life. It is these experiences that make us grow and enhance our abilities to make decisions. Use several balloons inflated with different amounts of air (blow them up, let them go and fall where they will) to show the students that we are all unique and have different experiences and will grow and advance at different paces in our school years. Also emphasize that decisions are not always easy, but they, too, challenge us to new heights and added responsibilities.
6. Read *Oh, the places you'll go!* by Dr. Seuss.
7. Solicit feelings regarding the book. Validate them.
   (This can be modified to use with new student groups in transition from one school to another.)

Appendix B

Lesson Plan for *The rainbow fish* (Pfister, 1992)

Title: *The rainbow fish*
Content Area: Interpersonal Relationships
Competency: Students will describe the process of making a friend.

Activities:

1. Discuss the qualities of friendship and the importance of friends. Allow students to name qualities they look for in a friend. Usually, the concept of sharing will be mentioned. Use this quality to introduce and read the book, *The rainbow fish*.
2. Process concepts of the book by discussing different ways the sea animals showed friendship. What messages did the Rainbow Fish send to the others at the beginning of the book? At the end of the book?
3. Summarize the lesson by asking the class how the Rainbow Fish felt at the beginning of the story compared to the end of the story. Even though he had given away something very precious to him, he realized that sharing his scales with others made him feel even more special than before.
4. Follow-up activities that are successful:
   a. I CAN SHARE sentence stem. Give students a small piece of foil for his fish. He/she can finish the sentence, color the fish, and glue on the silver scale.
   b. Talents activity write on the board, "My glittering scale can become a ..." Give each child a small piece of pre-cut foil (in the shape of a scale) and drawing paper. The student transforms his silver scale into a new object (it cannot be a fish). He/she completes the sentence and shares with the class. This is a transformation activity.
   c. Laminate large scales cut out of aluminum foil (3 - 4") and hand one out to each student. Encourage them, after the lesson, to practice sharing by giving the scale to another person, just like the Rainbow Fish.

Appendix C

Lesson Plan for *Pig will and Pig won't* (Scarry, 1995)

Lesson Title:	*Pig will, Pig won't*
Content Area:	Achievement Motivation
Competency:	Students will describe tasks he/she can accomplish at home.

Activities:

1. Ask students to name some of the different tasks or jobs they do at home and at school. After accepting different responses, point out that sometimes we like to do things and other times we refuse to do our chores. Tell them that you are going to read a short story about two little pigs named *Pig Will and Pig Won't*. Ask them to listen carefully to the story to see if they can tell how differently the two pigs acted and which pig had the better time.
2. Read *Pig Will and Pig Won't*
3. Have students talk about what they saw the two pigs doing. Explain that whenever we are asked to do something we have the choice of being a "Pig Will" or a "Pig Won't".
4. Ask the class which pig had the better day. Was it Pig Won't who refused to do anything and sulked around all day? Or was it Pig Will who was ready to help out and had a special outing along with the work?
5. Ask the students what lesson they could learn from *Pig Will and Pig Won't*. Encourage them to offer up different situations in which they could be a Pig Will and how they would feel if they were enthusiastic about helping out a home and school.
6. Suggest different brief scenarios (sitting still, finishing your work, brushing your teeth, picking up your toys). After each example have the class respond, "Pig Will".
7. Have students volunteer to be Pig Will and Pig Won't using hand puppets (constructed before the class session) and have them act out the scenarios.
8. Close the lesson by having each student hold the Pig Will puppet and tell one thing that they will do to cooperate at school or at home.

Additional Proofreading:
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Title: Early Childhood Literacy: Programs & Strategies to Develop Cultural, Linguistic, Scientific and Healthcare Literacy for Very Young Children & Their Families	
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